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ABSTRACT

Written for language educators, this volume about reading and research suggests that the theory-practice and research-teaching gaps are dysfunctional and calls for a collaborative pedagogy between colleges and schools to develop a practical theory of reading instruction. In the opening article, Jerome Harste discusses issues that emerged from sitting in special education classrooms observing reading instruction. The second section, "Classroom Insights," contains the following articles: "Curriculum as Theory Driven: Insights from Six Classrooms" (Diane Stephens and Jean Anne Clyde); "Literacy: What Messages Are We Sending?" (Deborah Wells Rowe); "Legitimizing Teachers' Insights" (Sharon Snyder); "Reading Comprehension Instruction: Cause for Reflection" (Barbara Roberts); and "The Value of Reflexivity" (Mark Gabehart). Section three contains an analysis and synthesis of special education reading materials, as well as suggestions for improvement by Avon Crismore, while in the last section Jerome Harste discusses issues raised and suggests 21 policy guidelines for curricular change. (EL)

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TOWARD PRACTICAL THEORY: A STATE OF PRACTICE ASSESSMENT OF READING COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTION

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FINAL REPORT

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TOWARD PRACTICAL THEORY:
A STATE - OF - PRACTICE ASSESSMENT OF
READING COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTION

Final Report - Volume II

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PREFACE

The function of both reading and research is learning. Interestingly, learning is also the goal of teaching. Given these parallels, it seems only fitting that a volume which attempts to report and summarize what we have learned from a state-of-knowledge and state-of-practice assessment of reading comprehension research set guidelines for the future in terms of how it is that language educators can collaboratively become a community of learners.

Toward practical theory is meant to point the direction in which we think language educators must move. Notice that the title does not start 'From Theory to Practice.' This shift in language is important. It is meant to suggest that current gaps between theory and practice as well as between research and teaching are dysfunctional and fail in the end to serve the profession.

We call for a collaborative pedagogy -- a pedagogy in which educators in colleges and educators in schools collaboratively work together in classrooms to develop a practical theory of reading instruction.

We don't need a new theory of reading. There is, in fact, a single and general model of reading slowly evolving in the research community. While we and others still talk about different theoretical models of reading, an examination of the more viable ones shows that they share more in common than is typically assumed. I predict that, to the extent that this phenomenon continues, we will end up with a single theoretical model of reading and that no one in the end will be given credit for having developed it. Alternative theoretical models of reading are more paper than reality. Older models of reading do not really exist other than as historical paper constructs upon which a current theoretician builds.

What we need right now is a theory of literacy instruction. What is needed is basic educational research grounded in our current knowledge base but focused toward the development of a practical theory of literacy instruction.

Basic research in education is different from basic research in psychology, sociology, or linguistics. Basic researchers in these disciplines can decide to study reading and nothing more. Some even may decide to limit their investigations to only aspects of the process, like how the graphophonemic system works or what happens during the period the eyes are on the page.

Educators do not have this luxury. Educators must act come Monday morning. They must know reading theory and also writing theory, learning theory, child growth and development, curriculum theory and more. The business of education is synthesis. The role of the educator is synthesizer whether that educator be in the university or in the public school. Because the business of education is synthesis and use, basic educational research is more complex.

Although we benefit from more adequate explanations of the basic operations in language and learning, these findings must still be interpreted and tested by the basic educational researcher if they are to result in an improved theory of literacy instruction and improved educational practice. This is why funding cognitive psychologists to solve the instructional problems in reading is misguided. What one finds is that they do well at basic psychological research, but then either leap to practice, assume practice will take care of itself, or turn this aspect over to persons who they would never consider qualified to do basic research in their mother discipline. In the final analysis it is basic research in education -- not basic research in psychology, sociology, or linguistics -- that has direct and immediate focus on improved instruction.

Many educational researchers, including the federal government, do not seem to understand this. Instead of doing educational research, our assessment, after reviewing the literature, is that the reading and writing educators who do research try to act like cognitive psychologists, sociologists, or quasi-linguists. The number of instructional studies -- that is, studies that synthsize basic research findings across a variety of disciplines for purposes of building and testing a theory of reading instruction in classrooms -- is extremely small.

This seems to be due to the fact that educational researchers adopt research methodologies from what they see as the basic sciences -- psychology, sociology, linguistics -- rather than attempt to build a basic methodology of their own which accents synthesis, reflects their goals, and acknowledges the action and change orientation of their discipline.

Good instructional research synthesizes and explicates the curricular premises upon which it is conducted, tracks the collaborative learning that participants engage in as a function of the curriculum, and documents its value by demonstrating reflexivity in terms of original premises and curricular growth on the part of all participants. This is but a start. The agenda ahead for educators of all kinds is to development a research methodology for their discipline. They must begin by not being afraid to acknowledge who they are and by conducting and reporting real educational inquiries in real instructional settings.

To further accomplish this new agenda teachers must become researchers and researchers teachers. Because thought collectives at researcher centers tend to be generative and influential -- but also tend to replicate their findings -- intellectual leadership for a new center for the study of reading and writing will benefit from school/university collaborations as well as by a wider participation and involvement of all educators in the process of basic educational research.

Learning entails one part activity to one part reflexivity. A state-of-practice assessment of reading comprehension instruction attempts to capture the activity -- what is currently going on -- as well as the reflexivity -- what teachers and others are and ought to be doing about it. Harste, in the first section and opening article, discusses and overviews issues which emerged from sitting in special education classrooms observing reading comprehension instruction taking place. In the second section other researchers (Stephens and Clyde, Rowe, Snyder, Gabehart and Roberts) talk about the teachers they observed -- the strength and influence of their belief systems, the value of their insights, the importance of having others legitimize their intuitions. Section three focuses on the materials used in teaching reading comprehension in classrooms. In this chapter, Crismore provides a thorough analysis and synthesis as well as suggestions for improvement. Harste returns, in the last section, to discuss issues raised across sites and to suggest 21 policy guidelines for curricular change.

The volume closes with a postscript. This piece is written by a teacher-researcher. It captures the essence of this volume as well as a future we envision and hope to help create. As a teacher, she is a researcher. As a teacher-researcher, she is a learner. In reading and in collaboration we join the teacher and the student, Teresa, in becoming teachers-researchers-learners.

These three -- teaching, researching, and learning -- constitute a single future and an envisionment of what education is and must be about. By setting new expectations for learning we rediscover what makes special education 'education,' and education 'special.'

For this we thank Cora Five and Teresa as well as the school districts and teachers who participated in this study. Although no endorsement of our findings and recommendations can we assumed, we deeply appreciate the planning advice of our national panel of advisors -- Linda and William Blanton (Appalachian State University), Candace Bos (University of Arizona), Cynthia Brabson (Monroe County Community School Corporation), Paul Crowley (Columbia Public Schools), Diane DeFord (Ohio State University), Roger Farr (Indiana University), Judith Green (Ohio State University), John Hess (Clark County Schools), Vernon Johnson (Washington Township Schools), Evelyn Mason (Indianapolis Public Schools), P. David Pearson (University of Illinois), Lynn Rhodes (University of Colorado at Denver), Cynthia Salmon (Brown County School Corporation), Susan Shuster (Indiana University), Elaine Stephens (Saginaw Vallege State College), Robert Tierney (University of Illinois), and Dorothy Watson (University of Missouri). Finally, special thanks goes to David Michaels for assisting in the design of the cover and to Nancy Drybread and Marian Brazzell in the preparation of this manuscript.

SECTION I

AN AGENDA

Chapter 1

SPECIAL EDUCATION: AN AGENDA FOR NEGOTIATION

Jerome C. Harste
Indiana University

INTRODUCTION

Recently we contracted to do a state-of-practice assessment of reading comprehension instruction in special education.(1) This agreement called for an in-depth case study of 9 special education service units. In conjunction with Advanced Technology Incorporated (ATI), an educational consulting firm which specializes in large scale school assessments, we identified 9 special service districts in the State of Indiana which we felt were representative of the alternate handicapping conditions, age levels, and organizational patterns in special education.

We presented our evaluation plan to a National Advisory Panel we and the funding agency had assembled to oversee and review work on the project. This panel recommended that we focus our research on what was happening in classrooms identifed as exemplary by the special education administrator in each district. Their rationale was that the profession had little to learn from watching bad instruction.

Since the intent of the project was to improve the teaching of reading comprehension among handicapped students, they further recommended that we adopt an ethnographic perspective and approach our task assuming a theory of reading comprehension was operating in each classroom. Our role, as researchers, then, was to map that theory and determine what kept it in place.

They also recommended that we report the results of our observations as "thick classroom descriptions." Identification and interpretation of co-occurring patterns and anomalies within and across classrooms, as well as reflections of what might be done to improve instruction given the current state of knowledge, should occur later; once we had time to reflect and think about what we made of our on-site experiences. They suggested that, rather than present what we found as "objective truth," we put ourselves "in the text" so that readers might hear from us as well as the field. Their rationale was that we had been contracted because of our expertise, and that readers of our final report should have access to our detailed descriptions, as well as be able to benefit from a synthesis of our work and thinking.(2)

What follows is one such district report. Classrooms descriptions permit readers to form their own set of working hypotheses about the status of reading comprehesion instruction in special education. To the extent that others metaphorically find the narrative describing what we made of this experience useful for advancing their own thinking, it presents what Guba and Lincoln (1985) say new evaluation projects should render: namely, "an agenda for negotiation among the stakeholders involved" in reading comprehension instruction in special education.

CLASSROOM DESCRIPTIONS

What follows is a description of 3 classrooms in a rural school district in Southern Indiana. While the focus of this report is on special education classrooms at the junior and senior high school level, one of these classroom descriptions is of an elementary school special education resource room. Understanding special education at the elementary school level is necessary to understand how and why special education operates as it does at other levels.

Organizationally, the district provides school by school services to students labeled mildly mentally handicapped, emotionally disturbed, behaviorally disordered, and learning disabled. This district joins with five neighboring districts to provide services for the hearing impaired, visually impaired, and severely mentally handicapped. Special education classrooms in this school district are called resource rooms. Many of these resource rooms operate like self-contained classrooms in that they serve the same children repeatedly throughout the day. The special education program in this district is relatively new, having begun in 1978. This is the first year that the program has had a full-time director of special education. Because of its manageability, the director of special education personally oversees the hiring of all teachers and uses employment decisions as an opportunity to build continuity and stability into the program.

In addition to classroom observations of reading instruction, the descriptions which follow are constructed using teacher responses to a survey of reading instruction, an analysis of the materials we saw being used or produced, and field notes from administrative and teacher interviews. Copies of elaborated field notes were returned to participants in order to increase the trustworthiness of the data. Member checks were made to clarify beliefs, attitudes, and instructional procedures. A debriefing session was held after the initial round of observations to discuss tentative conclusions and to confirm the direction that would be taken during a second round of classroom observation.

Randy's Classroom

Randy is a half time learning resource teacher who sees 17 students each morning. Officially 10 of his students are labeled mildly mentally handicapped, 2 are labeled emotionally disturbed, and 5 are labeled learning disabled. Randy personally describes all of his students as "communication handicapped."

Randy sees his role as helping children "find their way." By this he means that he sees these children as not understanding what they are to do to be successful in school. To this end he attempts to explicate step by step how children might go about thinking through school literacy tasks. He initially gets the children to verbalize these steps to him and then to apply these steps by themselves when he is not present. He believes one of the key problems is that children do not have strategies for completing activities, that their "thinking is unorganized," and that he can best help by teaching children routines or strategies that they might apply systematically in solving problems they encounter.

Instructionally Randy attempts to get children to stay on task, concentrate, and carefully apply the strategies he has taught them. His instructional program is, for the most part, completely individualized, and the work of each student is monitored very closely. His teaching style has been much influenced by his experience as a part-time instructor in the *DePaw Reading Program*. This program emphasizes a phonetic approach to reading, practice, reinforcement, and interactive, but direct, instruction. Randy describes himself and his program as "very structured."

Children drop in and out of Randy's classroom each day. Randy works with various children from 15 minutes to 2 and one half hours each day. While Randy organizes the reading instructional program that some children receive, others bring reading materials with them from their own classrooms. Randy's role, in these instances, is one of tutor. Even in those instances where the tutorial role is not explicit, Randy still monitors what the child is doing in reading in the regular classroom so that he can make adjustments in what he does in his classroom.

Despite this connection to the curriculum of the child's classroom, Randy has a good deal of flexibility in the reading program that he develops for each child. Randy consults the scores on the *Brigance Inventory of Basic Skills* (Curriculum Associates, 1976) to determine areas of weakness and then uses a variety of materials to plan an instructional unit. When commercial materials are used, Randy selects either materials from *Economy* (the basal series selected for use in special education classrooms in the district), *Houghton-Mifflin* (the basal materials being used in the child's regular classroom), or supplementary reading programs available in the school's material supply center.

Children not only have daily schedules (posted for each child on the cover of their "work folder"), but a weekly schedule. On Mondays children go to the listening center and follow along as they listen to an oral tape of Randy reading this week's story. After listening to the story, children are given questions to answer. Randy checks these immediately and, if children have answered the questions correctly, they are encouraged to read the story on their own for the remainder of the time.

To quote Randy, "Tuesday is skill and drill day." Typically children do the worksheets which accompany the story being read for the week. Worksheets, for the most part, focus on "phonics and the other subskills of reading."

Wednesday is used for reinforcement. Randy prepares worksheets and other activities which reinforce the skills that were introduced and taught on Tuesdays. In preparing these activities, Randy attempts to create novel ways to reinforce the skill.

Thursday is language experience day. Typical Thursday activities build off of, but involve the child in extending, the story that was read on Monday in some way. Children may, for example, give TV news reports or do creative drama by turning the story into a play.

Friday is oral comprehension check day. Children reread the story orally. Randy asks questions and the children respond. During such readings Randy monitors the child's intonation patterns for purposes of deciding on the quality of the child's reading and comprehension. Randy explained that while this might seem like a lot of repetition, he, nonetheless, feels it is important as "...generally special education kids and these kids in particular are going to have trouble decoding."

Randy characterizes his current program as functional in that "he lets kids write sentences of their own choosing to go with the vocabulary words being studied for the week." When he works with children on worksheets, Randy typically focuses the child's attention to the meaning of the word and from within this frame reviews the step by step procedures that the child should use to solve the reading problem faced. Randy believes that both meaning and skills are important in reading but that, before you can do too much with comprehension, you have to make sure that subskills are in place. He believes that most reading problems are a function of subskill deficiency, saying, "Generally, this is what got the child in trouble in the first place."

Three instructional sequences best typify the range and nature of Randy's reading program. In the first instance Randy is working with Dale as he attempts to complete a worksheet. Instructional sequences of this sort are dominant in Randy's room. We observed

30 similar sequences during the course of our observations. In the second instance Randy is working with a child who attempts to answer comprehension questions after listening to a story Randy recorded on audio cassette. Sequences of this sort happen less frequently, but nonetheless typify Randy's manner and focus of working with children in reading comprehension. In the third instance Randy is having children take their new vocabulary words and write them in sentences of their own choosing.

Instance One -- Randy Works with Dale on Short Vowels. Having consulted the results of the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills, Randy has decided that Dale needs more work in short vowel sounds. Today they are working on the short 'u' sound. Randy gives Dale a worksheet containing short sentences. Each sentence has a 3 letter word which is missing the initial and final consonant letters. Dale's task is to read the sentence and then put in the initial and final consonant letters surrounding the short 'u' given in the missing word.

"'U' says /uh/," Randy says as he draws a picture of a cup on the blackboard. "When I had my coffee this morning, what did it come in?" Dale responds, "Cup." Randy repeats the word, "cup," saying it so that all of its component sounds are articulated as clearly as possible. "Put the beginning sound of the word in the blank space." Dale writes the letter 'c' in the first slot, repeats the word by elongating each sound, and then puts the letter 'p' in the remaining open slot. Randy, meanwhile, has moved on to help another child.

Dale knocks on his desk (a signal used to ask for help in this class) after he looks at item 2 on the worksheet. Randy says to Dale, "Concentrate." Dale looks down and then knocks on his desk more loudly. Randy responds from across the room, "I'm working with someone, that's not polite."

When Randy finishes with the child with whom he is working he comes to Dale who is looking up waiting for Randy to advance rather than attempting to do his work. "Dale, eyes on your work, please." "Read the sentence all the way through before you make a decision....I don't want you to just stick words in." Dale reads the sentence out loud and Randy once again walks Dale through the procedure -- identify the missing word, say it slowly, write the initial sound in the first slot, write the final sound in he last slot.

Randy leaves to help another child and then swings by Dale's desk before moving on to yet another child. "Good....Now, Dale, put in the ending sound."

Randy once again moves off. Dale is having problems and so knocks again. Randy comes back and together they run through another example. After Randy is sure that Dale can pronounce each word in the sentence he says, "Put the right letter down.....Dale, would I put an 'x' there?" "Yes," Dale responds. "No, I fooled you...What letter does it end with?"

This gets Dale to reconsider and think about the fact that what he is to write is to match the final sound in the word he hears. Dale responds "/tub/." Randy nods and Dale begins to write a 't' on his worksheet.

There have been several knocks on desks by other children now. Randy goes to help them. Dale can be heard at his desk orally saying, "/ba-ba-ba/" to himself as he attempts to complete another item. This sequence continues until it is time for Dale to work on his spelling.

Instance Two -- Randy Works with John on a Comprehension Worksheet.

John has listened to the story, "Ted Paints," and is about to answer some questions on a worksheet that Randy has prepared. John has the worksheet and knocks on his desk for help.

Randy reads the question, "Who likes to paint?" He then poses a hypothetical situation using himself and John, the student involved, as examples, "John and Mr. (teacher's last name) like to paint," pointing out that the ending of the sentence they orally produced corresponds directly to the phrasing (LIKES TO PAINT) in the question on the blue ditto. "If you read the question you will find that I will almost give you the answer...I really will," he says to John.

Randy goes to help other students. As Randy passes John's desk, John says, "I just can't do it." John is still on question 1. Randy says, "Who is the one who painted?" John responds, "Ted." Randy says, "Write it." John begins to write, TED LIKE [sic] TO PAINT. Randy tells John that this is the answer to the first question. As he watches John write, he says, "What do we put at the end of a sentence?" John responds, "...a question mark." Randy asks, "Is this a question?" John shakes his head. Randy says, "No...so what do you put?" John responds, "A period." Randy says, "Write it down."

Once John has finished this task, Randy helps him correct his sentence by getting him to add an 's' to 'like.' Randy then takes John's pencil and puts a slash mark between two words in the sentence that John has written, saying, as he hands back the paper, "...so people will know it is 2 words."

Randy leaves to go help other children. John knocks again. Randy comes over and reads the item to John, "Can Ted paint big things?" John says something in response. Randy says, "Good," as he begins to move away.

John asks, "But...do I write it down?" Randy responds, "Trust yourself."

Randy moves off, but then later comes back to watch John work on item 3. "Okay, how would you end that sentence 'Ted likes dogs and birds?'" John tells him that he would end it with a question. "Oh really?...Did you tell me or ask me something?" John's second guess is, "..tell you something." Randy moves off to work with Dale.

Instance Three -- Children Write Sentences to Practice Spelling and Vocabulary. New vocabulary words for the week have been introduced, reviewed and studied. Children, in this instance, go to their "work folders" and are asked via directions on a worksheet Randy has prepared to take their vocabulary words and put them in sentences. This is independent seat work. Children work individually, consult for spelling as needed and check with Randy if they encounter problems. Completed work is put on Randy's desk to be corrected. Students receive a score of from 1 to 5 on this and every other assignment they complete in Randy's room. If they do not receive a 3 or better, they are asked to redo the assignment.

Lynn's Classroom

Lynn is a junior high learning resource teacher with a case load of 34. About half of the students that Lynn teaches are labeled learning disabled. The remaining half are labeled mildly mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed. Lynn's case load is a more reasonable estimate of her workload than is class size in that psychologically Lynn is concerned about her students whether or not they are physically present in her class. In this regard, Lynn often conducts, in the midst of her regular lessons, "minilessons" on problematic topics (e.g., quotation marks, state abbreviations, etc.) which she knows are being covered in other classes.

Officially, Lynn teaches 7th and 8th grade mathematics and English. In addition to these 4 sections, Lynn runs a late afternoon tutorial (study hall) for 23 of her students. English classes vary from 7 to 13 students. Reading and writing are the focus of her English program.

Since many of the students are with Lynn for both the 7th and 8th grade, Lynn conceptualizes her reading/English program as a two year plan. In 7th grade Lynn concentrates on "creative writing," emphasizing story writing, writing folders, and group writing exercises. Lynn believes that students need to write first and read later; that it is through writing that her students can regain ownership of reading and writing.

Lynn has no adopted text in reading though she does use The Reading Connection (Open Court, 1982), a newspaper formatted skill recovery program, and Famous People Stories (Turman Publishing Company, 1979; Educational Insights, 1980) two SRA-like sets of reading materials which, according to the publishers, cover such skills as main idea, finding the facts, vocabulary building, finding the sequence, cause and effect, making inferences, and thinking on your own. In English, Lynn uses The Writing Power Series (Globe Book Company, 1980) though she does not have enough student books to go around.

Despite the availability of some commercial materials, most of the materials that Lynn uses during her English periods are teacher-made. It is not uncommon to find Lynn posting an interesting article, using an essay she has written as the material for a skills lesson, or bringing in pictures from magazines and books which she knows the students will find motivating. Lynn sees herself as a "scrounge" and other teachers often pass on materials that they are no longer using.

Lynn tries to make her program "relevant and meaningful to the students." She calls this approach "whole language." "Reading is a small part of my English class responsibilities....I try to tie it all together through a whole language approach in which reading, spelling, writing, etc., are made relevant to their lives." According to Lynn she emphasizes "motivation, meaning, and relevance" in her approach to reading instruction "so that there is a purpose to it and it is meaningful to them."

Except for journal writing there is no typical day in Lynn's "write to read" program. Nonetheless, all of the instructional activities which Lynn plans share many features in common, the principal one, according to Lynn being, "comprehension of the written word within a reality-based context which has validity to the students."

The 8th grade program emphasizes reading more than writing. Although students read a common set of novels, Lynn schedules time for uninterrupted sustained periods of silent reading followed by discussion. Even during oral reading times, Lynn often pauses to ask predicting and confirming questions. Lynn uses their answers as a means of assessment because "...you can tell real quickly if the kids got it?" Typically some more formal form of comprehension check is done following silent reading periods. Answers are checked by either Lynn or her aide and students are given almost immediate feedback as to how well they have done.

Like Randy, Lynn uses the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills to determine what skill units to plan. Rather than write individual instructional plans for each student on a lesson-by-lesson basis, Lynn has written a set of instructional plans that she feels covers the English language arts. These she adds to the Brigance list (which she feels for instructional purposes is inadequate, as are the individual instructional plans based on this list) and uses her self-generated list as the basis of deciding what units to teach and how to group students for instruction. Unlike Randy, Lynn does a good deal of group instruction. For the most part group activities are focused on specific skills, but are open ended, allowing students of various abilities to more or less enter and exit at their own level of expertise.

The following 3 instructional sequences best typify Lynn's instruction. In instance one the students are writing a group story. In instance two Lynn has brought in a picture and students dictate a story which becomes the basis of their reading lesson. In instance three Lynn is using a commercial set of reading materials.

Instance One -- Cash Register Stories. Lynn begins the lesson by taking attendance and by writing contractions on the board which, from her reading of student papers last evening, she knows several students find problematic. Students are asked to come up and write the two words that make up each contraction.

Once this introductory activity is is over, Lynn announces that today the group is going to write stories and work on sentences. Students are asked to get their desks in a circle such that the fronts of the desks are facing outside. Each student is given a roll of adding machine paper. Lynn gives them the first sentence, "As I was walking along the curb, I saw a small box," which they are to copy on their paper. The rules are that "If David puts a period after a sentence, I can't change it...What do you do after a period?....You put your name on it so we can grade it later, and then pass you paper on to the next student so that they can add their sentence to the story." As students copy the first sentence on their papers, Lynn announces, "Be thinking what your next sentence is going to be."

Students write their sentence and sign their name to their work. Lynn asks them to wait until everyone is done before passing their "cash register story forward." At regular intervals Lynn announces "Pass," and so the activity proceeds. Students read the initial sentence, the contributions of their fellow students, and then add a new line. Students appear to really enjoy this activity as they often smile and compliment each other on their clever lines. After 4 rounds, Lynn announces, "Hold it...Don't pass....This time, when you get the paper, figure out a way to end it....Okay?....Pass."

In between turns Lynn monitors each student's work closely by reading what they have written and helping them should they need help. Throughout the course of the lesson Lynn has seen each student several times, often asking them to orally read to her the story as it is evolving.

Once the activity is over each of the 12 students take a turn reading the composite story they have ended. After each story is read Lynn asks the group, "Does it make sense?" and since Lynn and students conclude that most stories do, Lynn responds, "Good" and then proceeds to the next student. Students enjoy the twists that the stories have taken. Before they leave students are asked to turn in their stories to the aide so that the sentences they have created may be graded.

Instance Two -- Compositing a Group Story for Reading. It is Monday and Lynn has brought in a picture which she has clipped from a magazine. It shows a rock group in a Dali-like landscape. Students are asked to look at the picture and think about a story that they might write to go along with the picture. Each student can contribute one sentence. The first student dictates a sentence which Lynn writes on the overhead. As she is writing, she tells those who have not contributed to be thinking what could come next. If Lynn gets several ideas for a next sentence, she lets the group decide, through discussion, which it is to be. In this fashion a story is created: IN 1716, THE ROCK GROUP CALLED THE IRON MAIDEN WENT TO EGYPT ON CAMELS. THEY WERE GOING TO PLAY AT A TOMB. KING TUT WAS THEIR HOST. THERE WERE ALL KINDS OF PEOPLE COMING TO HEAR THEM. ON THE WAY THERE, THERE WAS A SANDSTORM. THE GROUP WERE BLOWN AWAY, ACROSS THE SEA, AND ENDED UP IN INDIANA...etc.

As the story is written students read and reread the evolving text. Once it is completed they again read the text together as a group. Working from the text, Lynn begins to underline words that she says are this week's vocabulary/spelling words, i.e., CAMELS, TOMB, HOST, GROUP, BLOWN, etc. Once the story is typed, students will get a personal copy to use in completing a variety of vocabulary, spelling, and oral reading exercises during the week.

Instance 3 -- Students Read Frankenstein. Lynn begins this class by taking role and checking to see how students are doing on various assignments. Then she offers an exercise on quotation marks because, she says, she noticed while grading papers that certain kids were having trouble. Students who did not have trouble are permitted to read on their own or enter the stories they previously have written into the computer. The remainder of the students go over a commercially prepared worksheet on quotation marks. After this exercise and a minilesson on state abbreviations (because students are discussing this in social studies), Lynn calls the entire group together and announces that they will be doing The Reading Connection now. One student is asked to pass out copies of the newspaper to fellow class members.

"Okay, you're going to read Page 8 on your own...So far we've only been reading together in this newspaper....Today, I want to see how you do on your own...Go ahead, we have about 15 minutes to work on this and then I'd like to talk about it."

At this point Lynn sets an oven timer she has on her desk. The article on page 8 is entitled "Frankenstein" and essentially tells the story of how Frankenstein was created and the relationship he had with the scientist that created him. As the computer is free, Lynn selects a student to go and put her story on disk. Students read silently. Lynn reads the article as she slowly walks around the room checking on how students are doing. The article is two pages in length. Students read for 12 minutes. The room is quiet. Once Lynn completes her reading of the article she goes to the blackboard and writes: "TO TURN IN: HOW DID VICTOR FEEL ABOUT HIS CREATURE AT THE BEGINNING AND AT THE END OF THE STORY?"

As students finish their reading they reach in their desks and pull out a sheet of paper. No directions are given orally. The girl next to me immediately goes to the second column of page 8 where she knows that the text described how Victor felt about his creation. The text at this point read, "VICTOR WAS SUDDENLY FILLED WITH HORROR. HE HAD MEANT FOR HIS CREATURE TO BE BEAUTIFUL. BUT ONCE IT WAS ALIVE, THE SCIENTIST SAW THAT IT WAS UGLY AND HORRIBLE. THE CREATURE'S EYES WERE PALE, HIS SKIN WAS SHRIVELED, AND HIS LIPS WERE BLACK.."

After rereading this section, the student wrote "AT THE BEGINNING HE SAW IT WAS UGLY AND HORRIBLE," moving from her paper to the text in copy-like fashion.

Lynn, who had been helping the student put her story on the computer, looks up as the timer on her desk rings and sees that most students are done reading and that several, like the girl above, have started answering the question. "Glad you're started...Rememberc it's kind of like 2 questions on the board...beginning and end."

The remainder of the class period is spent completing this assignment. Several students finish and turn in their answers. Others do not and are asked to bring their work to Lynn's tutorial session (study hall) to finish later in the day. We ask Denise, another student in the class who has completed the assignment, if we can see her paper before she turns it in. Denise's paper read: "1. HE WANT IT TO BE KIND AND BEAUTIFUL AN KIND...THEN HE DI LIKE THE CREATURE AND FLEAD....2. IT HAD KID HIS BATHER AND HIS WIFE AND HE WANT TO KILL IT."

As students leave Lynn asks one student to collect the newspaper. When we questioned her as to how it was that she had decided to let the students read on their own in this instance, she said that ever since she had introduced these materials the students had wanted to read this article. Since this was a high interest piece, it was a good piece, in her estimation, to have the students read by themselves. We also asked her how it was that she would follow up this activity. She said that tomorrow she would have the students share their answers and then complete a comprehension worksheet on the story provided in the teacher's manual for the series. When we examined this worksheet we found that it asked students to identify the main idea of the story from 3 choices given, and fill in 4 events in an 8 event sequence describing the major events in the story.

Nancy's Classroom

Nancy is a high school learning resource teacher. Despite this label she perceives herself as running a self-contained special education classroom. Nancy sees 49 students each day, 16 labeled mildly mentally handicapped and the rest labeled learning disabled, emotionally disturbed or behaviorally disordered. Nancy sees each of her 49 students an average of 2 hours each day. Nancy has 16 students in the section of English she teaches.

Nancy explains that students do a lot of reading and writing in her program. Generally, she says, she finds combining reading and writing to be "very motivating for the kids." "Once they find out it is okay and safe to express their thoughts on paper, they want to do it constantly." Writing leads naturally to reading because, once they write something, they "want someone else to read it."

Nancy sees a lack of material as a real problem in special education. What she would like to see is more materials of a career nature "which stress functional skills and are of high interest to these kids." She would also like to see newspaper-like materials that are functionally oriented. If such materials were more plentiful and less expensive, functional skills which students need after school would be easier to teach.

Nancy says that she works on grammar informally, if at all. Rarely does she teach grammar directly. These kids don't need more Englsih courses which focus on grammar. To quote Nancy, "They have flunked that all of their years at school." The real problem, she feels, with a special education program like hers, is that despite progress "the gap is so wide that the kids can't catch up." Generally their regular high school classes "are geared to factual information...9th and 10th grade English is very hard...and these kids fail."

Rather than work on grammar and other skills directly, Nancy attempts to get these kids to read and write, working informally on grammar as she does so. The key is "to get them to want to read." Nancy thinks by the end of her program most do want to read. She attributes her success to the fact that she brings in books that she thinks are going to be of interest to them.

The first 15 minutes of each day is devoted to free-writing in their journals. Students can write about anything. Later in the year Nancy says that she will have the students look through their Writing Folder and select stories that they wish to publish. These will be revised, edited and then published in either magazine or book form. In this way Nancy plans to set up an authoring cycle in her classroom.

After writing in their journals, students go to their "English Folders" where they find directions and assignments on what they are to do. Among other things in these folders are Steck-Vaugnn Skill Sheets (Curriculum Associates, 1980) which Nancy individually selects based on the areas of weakness identified by the Brigance. When we questioned her as to why she used these materials in that they didn't look like most of the things she did in her classroom, she said that they were easy to score and that since she needed to submit grades on a skill-by-skill basis, these materials allowed her to fulfill this school function while not getting in the way of her on-going program.

Other activities in the English Folder are more open-ended. For example, 11th and 12th grade students are given the direction to go to the Janus Job Materials (Janus Press, 1980), find a card describing a job in which they are interested and complete worksheets (application form, interview questions, etc.) related to the training and tasks involved in employment of this sort. Tenth and 11th grade students also do units which involve magazines and newspapers. Nancy brings these materials to class and students search through the documents cutting and posting items of interest to them and fellow classmates. Many of the materials she uses are teacher-made in that there is, according to Nancy, a real shortage of functional materials at this level.

Vocabulary/spelling words are posted on the back blackboard in different colors so that students at various levels can identify the set for which they are responsible. Students are supposed to learn to spell these words by writing sentences. Nancy says that she spends 50 percent of her time in reading developing vocabulary words and the rest of the time working on other skills such as story reading and comprehension.

Because Nancy often has the same child in her room for 4 years, commercial materials are used at certain grade levels and not at others. This policy insures that students won't encounter the same materials over and over again.

Nancy, like Lynn, has a computer in her room. Students use the computer after they complete their journals and the other work they find to do in their English Folders. Computer games such as Hang-Man are played together. Nancy gives few directions. Once the activity is introduced, she expects students to follow through -- write in your Writing Folder first each morning; take turns at the computer -- and students, apparently, do.

In looking through the expanded field notes taken in Nancy's classroom 2 activities typify Nancy's program. Instance 1 describes a typical morning session. For the most part students work independently and alone. Instance 2 briefly describes a social studies lesson that Nancy conducted following her morning English period. This activity highlights reading and involves the use of small group instruction.

Instance One -- A Typical English Period. Nancy greets each student quietly as they come into the room. By the time the school bell has rung each student has picked up their Writing Folder from Nancy's desk. Nancy walks to the front of the room and begins to take roll.

As she takes roll, Nancy reviews what work is to be done and announces, as she matches faces and names, achievements and announcements such as "Tom Johnson needs to be congratulated...He's the owner of a driver's license...It's Mary's birthday today, let's be sure to wish her a Happy Birthday." The room is quiet and friendly. Students wish Mary a Happy Birthday, give Tom a round of applause, and then settle down and begin to write in their Writing Folders.

Nancy moves around the room quietly, stopping to talk to each student as she does so. As she passes by her desk she picks up several paperback books which she has brought in for students to read. She hands these out as she moves among the students. Students appear both pleased and interested. One boy immediately put both his Writing Folder and English Folder away, sat back and began reading the book. He continued this throughout the period, seemingly totally engrossed in the story.

When we asked what it was that she talked with each student about during this time, Nancy said that essentially she touched base with them to find out how problems had worked out and how things generally were going. One conversation we overheard dealt with dress. Essentially Nancy noticed something new that the girl was wearing and complimented her on her tasteful attire. Another student told her that his mother hadn't started, as yet, the time management program they had agreed on in a case conference. Nancy told the student that probably his mother just needed some time to think about how to work it out and that he shouldn't worry as she was sure she would shortly.

Some students write in their Writing Folders for about 15 minutes, others write for the whole class period. Ben, a student in the class, shared his Writing Folder with us. One of his entries read: 'MRS. (teacher's last name)'S ROOM IS PRETTY ROOM ITS GOT ALL KINDS OF GAMES AND A COMPUTER, AND ETC......,WHEN WHERE GOOD WE GET TO SEE A MOVIE. BUT WHEN WHERE RELLY GOOD ON FRI. IF I'M NOT MISTAKING WE GET TO HAVE FREE TIME. I THINK I'M RIGHT BUT REALL WE GET TO WORK ON THE COMPUTER WHEN WERE DONE WITH ARE WORK. OH AT 8:33 IT IS DAYLIGHT AND I THINK AT 9:00 THE SUN (picture)

WILL COME UP.

After we had made an observation in the classroom, a later entry read: "THERE IS A GUY FROM IU WHO COME TO SEE ABOUT ARE CLASS. HE'S NAME IS MR. HARSTE FROM I.U. OH I FORGOT I.U. LOST THE GAME GARY E. SAID THEY PUT SOME BAD PEOPLE IN THERE AND THEY COULDN'T PLAY WORTH ANYTHING. AND NORTRE DAME WON BY 74 AND IU HAS 63 AND THEY LOSE. 8:30 IT IS DAYLIGHT AND AT 9:00 OR 9:03 THERE WILL COME UP IN THE HIGH 20 (degree symbol) ITS GOING TO SNOW TONIGHT.

When later we asked Nancy why Ben includes a weather report in his writing, she informed us that he is very interested in the weather and finds this information in the newspaper to include each day in his journal. Nancy is pleased with the progress he is making as initially Ben did not feel he could write at all.

Once the students have completed writing in their journals they place them on the teacher's desk and go to their English Folders to find out what else they are to do. Today several students are to use the Janus materials. Two girls select the same job -- a registered nurse -- and decide to work together at the front table in completing the worksheet Nancy has created to go along with the materials. This worksheet asks the girls to read the job card and then complete information as to their qualifications for the job, what the job offers them, what the working conditions are, and other information covering the field of work. As Nancy walks by, one of the girls asks, "Do you need a degree to be an RN?" "Yes," Nancy responds. Turning to the girl with whom she is working, the one girl says to the other, "Boy, the more I hear about this job the less I like it!"

Once students have completed their Writing Folder assignment they can either go to their English Folders or take turns working on the computer. Turn taking on the computer usually lasts from 5 to 10 minutes. Students monitor their own time at the computer. This activity proceeds smoothly.

Towards the end of the hour Nancy moves to the front of the room and quietly announces that students needs to be thinking about wrapping things up for the day. As a closing activity, Nancy selects a student and finger spells one of the student's spelling/vocabulary words. The student orally guesses the word and then selects and finger spells another word either back to Nancy or to another student in the class. As the bell rings, Nancy reminds the students that they will have a spelling test at the end of this week and that they should be sure to practice their words.

Instance Two -- Reading in Social Studies. During the second hour of each day Nancy has a group of 16 students for a special section of social studies. Today, students have read a chapter on government and as an assignment written out what they think could be 5 laws for their classroom. Nancy discusses the content piece with them by asking them to tell what they thought of the selection. She then divides the group into 3 smaller groups. Their assignment is to share their laws with each other and then as a group identify the 5 that they think are the most sane for the class to adopt. A lively discussion ensues with students taking turns reading their list and justifying their decisions. Once each group has settled on five rules, the groups reassemble and the class discusses which of the small group rules they will select as "an assembly of the whole." Their final choices were written on the board by Nancy: (1) BE ON TIME; (2) BRING MATERIALS TO CLASS; (3) BE CONSIDERATE OF YOUR CLASSMATES; (4) TAKE YOUR TURN TALKING; (5) USE YOUR OWN MATERIALS; (6) TWO PEOPLE AT THE COMPUTER; and (7) KEEP GUM IN MOUTH.

REFLEXIVITY: TOWARD CREATING AN AGENDA

What strikes us about Randy's, Lynn's, and Nancy's classrooms are not how much they are alike, but how different each is from the other. Co-occurring patterns seduce us into believing that the development of a common theory of instruction in special education is possible. Anomalies suggest that our current conceptions, no matter how detailed, are not detailed enough to explain even 3 instructional instances -- to say nothing about the multitude of contexts existing across the United States. While we can offer no consistent theory, then, through comparison and contrast between these classrooms and others, patterns and anomalies do emerge which merit the profession's interest.

We should also add that the patterns, anomalies, and agenda items we porpose is based on our view and interpretation of what we saw occurring in the classrooms we visited. We have attempted to present the teachers by selecting instances which reflect our perception of the orderliness and intention of their instruction. In the next section we offer our interpretation of the significance of what we saw happening in these classrooms. To further discussion and negotiation, we state what we believe rather than assume a stance of neutrality.

Co-Occurring Patterns and Anomalies

Retaining Professionalism. As professionals, one of the conclusions that we must reach is that, in this school district at least, special education is a good place to work. Teachers are given the opportunity to develop their own instructional program using whatever methods, materials, and techniques they felt appropriate. While there are constraints -- both perceived and real -- teachers can. within the district's program assessment policy (pre/post test using the Brigance Diaganostic Inventory of

Basic Skills), select how it is that they want to organize the instructional environment in order to help their students learn. While this assessment policy is a real constraint and no doubt accounts in part for the skill overtone to teaching reading in each of the classrooms, nonetheless, the broader district policy does allow teachers to be true professionals. Specifically, it allows teachers to use the methods and materials with which they became acquainted through professional reading and attendance at workshops and professional meetings. To this end both Lynn and Nancy introduced finger spelling into their programs. The article they had read posed this technique as kinesthetic and multimodal. "Whole language," a philosophy they became familiar with through their attendance at professional conferences, is also being tried. Randy believes special education children needed a good deal of explicit instruction. He is free to use what teaching techniques he has learned from his experience in another program as well as integrate this with what he had learned in college about the teaching of reading. Teachers, in short, are permitted to make instructional decisions. They choose what objectives to work towards, what materials to use, as well as how to organize the instructional environment for learning. There are limits, but not as many as other teachers seem to have to work within. To be complimented are both the director of special education (for hiring professionals and working to create an environment which encouraged teachers to take charge of their professional development) and the teachers (who elected to exercise this right).

We suspect that part of this professional freedom is a function of the fact that these students have consistently failed and are therefore expected to continue to do so. With such a history and set of expectations in place, special education teachers are freer than regular education teachers to try out innovative methods. In this regard special educators find themselves aligned with inner-city teachers. Teachers in these settings, too, are given opportunities, some of the origins of which are not pleasant upon examination.

Organizing and Building from Strength. One of the characteristics of each of these teachers and the instructional environment that they created in their classroom was its surface organizational structure. Clearly one of the criterion for being hired in this district, or at least being perceived as successful and effective, is having a surface classroom organizational structure that makes it clear, both to an observer entering the classroom and to the students involved, that order prevails. Randy uses the outside of the children's folders and his weekly overall framework to signal this organization. Lynn uses a daily lesson structure -- attendance, check on progress, introduce activity, set timer, follow-up -- to signal her organization. Nancy uses routine, explicit directions in the students' writing and English folders, and opening and closing activities to signal her organizational structure. All of these organizational frames are patterns that are well established. By watching the students it is evident that students know, understand, and have accepted the teacher's classroom structure as their own.

Lynn's and Nancy's classrooms are different from most classrooms we have visited in that their "whole language" orientations to teaching reading and writing make more common organizational frameworks unpalatable (i.e., reading groups, spelling, grammar, etc.). Yet, to the credit of each of these teachers, they have devised overall structures which are understandable to children and observers entering their room. If this were not the case, we believe, their rather innovative approaches to teaching reading and writing would be more vulnerable and more likely to come under attack by students, parents, and administrators. One message which seems to be clear is that if you want to be an innovative teacher you had better develop surface structure organizational patterns which make it clear that your instruction is organized and your approach systematic.

"De-defining" Reading Comprehension. For us, reading and reading comprehension are synonymous terms. Without comprehension, one does not have reading. For the teachers in these 3 classrooms, and hence the children in these rooms, reading comprehension was something quite different than what it was for us. To some extent all of the teachers defined it as "vocabulary instruction." Randy seems to define it instructionally as on-line meaning maintenance, with a focus on word attack. There are instances which are exceptions (his Friday program in which he has children take what they have read and do something with it), but subskills such as word recognition and word attack are presented as what good readers do. Lynn seems to be operating under the impression that teaching reading comprehension entails teaching vocabulary, sentence structure, main idea, and on-line meaning maintenance of the does-it-make-sense variety. Randy, Lynn, and Nancy all appear to equate reading comprehension with the ability to answer text driven questions of a literal nature. The only powerful exceptions to this pattern are Nancy, and then during social studies instruction not reading instruction, and Lynn, during writing instruction, not reading instruction.

The upshot is that for the most part reading comprehension in these classrooms during reading instruction entails a fairly low-level set of cognitive processing skills. Rather than see reading comprehension as interpretation, synthesis and generation -- as a process of recasting what one has read in terms of one's own experiences for purposes of outgrowing one's current self -- the focus is on reading as information transfer involving deductive and inductive logic. Lynn does focus on some things that might be called higher-level processing such as inferencing, text structure, and the making of a unified meaning (i.e., cash register stories), but this is the exception rather than the rule. Nancy did higher level reading comprehension activities in her social studies class than she did in her English class, yet she perceived the lower-level activities (defining vocabulary/spelling words; answering a fairly straightforward set of questions after reading the Janus Materials) as "reading comprehension" and the social studies reading and law-making activity as "social studies instruction," not "reading instruction." Randy sees reading comprehension as something which comes about as a function of having mastered subskills. Whatever reading comprehension he did came off almost as a foil for practice on more fundamental skills like capitals, periods, and short vowels sounds.

While this assessment may seem harsh, it is nonetheless the case that what the teachers were confident about teaching in the name of reading comprehension was qualitatively quite different from a cognitive processing perspective that most reading theorist and researchers think ideal. The teachers' instructional definitions, while understandable, are not good enough. By intuitively integrating reading and writing and using reading and writing as a vehicle for learning (see Nancy's use of reading and writing in social studies), their enacted program is better than their articulated program. In almost every instance we saw better reading comprehension instruction going on during writing than we saw during those instructional periods designated officially as reading. While this makes us question past assessments of the amount of reading comprehension not taking place in America's classrooms, the real point is that without a more articulated and explicit statement of what reading comprehension is and how to teach it, many natural opportunities to teach reading comprehension are lost in the on-going course of classroom life.

Given our experiences in regular and special education classrooms we believe that these teachers are better at setting up a conducive environment for the teaching of reading comprehension than most. In part this is true because they have all, each in their own way, attempted to integrate rather than further fragment the language arts. In part this theoretical move is a function of necessity. There simply isn't enough time in the day to do all aspects of the language arts when they are fragmented into spelling, reading, skills, vocabulary, writing, and penmanship.

At one level, what our experience in these classrooms reconfirms is that how teachers conceptualize reading comprehension makes a powerful instructional difference. This reconfirmation is important. It suggests an agenda and points to a direct course of teacher change and classroom action.

Thinking Curriculum. The function of curriculum is to unify perspective. In operation, curriculum is a transactive relationship between 3 components. The fist component represents an articulated envisionment of what attitudes and strategies a literate person possesses, as well as what classroom contexts teachers can create so that learners might engage in, see demonstrated, and come to value the attitudes and strategies associated with successful written language use and learning. This component becomes actualized through such things as lesson plans, materials, the physical arrangement of the room and the philosophy of learning that teacher communicates through both direct instruction and learning demonstrations.

The second component is "the mental trip" that the learner takes as a function of engagement in the planned activities. By writing when children are invited to write and by reading when children are invited to read, the language arts teacher can experience this mental trip and attempt, at least, to get in touch with this component of curriculum.

The third component is the transactive relationship that exists between the first two. Using the student as curricular informant, educators can decide if their intended curriculum (component one) bears any relationship to the realized curriculum, the learner's "trip" (component two). If, for example, the language user is not taking the mental trip envisioned by the plan, then new activities and contexts are planned to facilitate the intended curriculum.

We offer this interpretation of curriculum and curriculum development for purposes of sensitizing educators to what we see as a key issue and area in need of negotiation. Essentially, we have concluded that curriculum has fallen through the cracks in this district's classrooms.

Consider the first component. We have said that this component represents, in part, an articulated envisionment of what attitudes and strategies a literate person possesses. In these classrooms we found no unified perception of literacy.

Randy, for example, sets up his instructional environment to explicitly engage children in practicing those skills he thinks important. His activities suggest that he envisions an effective reader as skilled, not strategic. The things he teaches are posed as laws -- you must look for the vowel, decide if it is short, long, or r-controlled, and then sound it out -- rather than as options, one of several strategies that the reader could apply when faced with an unknown word. If this is not what Randy intends to teach, the why and how of his current teaching send mixed messages; they conflict.

Nancy, on the other hand, engages children in many meaningful and, given our current state of knowledge, theoretically sound activities. Children are given many opportunities to use reading and writing as a form of social action. Yet, her envisionment of literacy for these students as "survival skills" extends as well as limits what her program can be. Literacy, in Nancy's classroom, takes on a socially functional orientation. While students are permitted to use literacy in a psychologically functional way -- to use writing, for example, to help organize their thinking in their writing folders -- this aspect of literacy is more implied and hence less focused than the social action we-use-literacy-to-get-things-done aspect of her program.

Lynn, like Randy, focuses more of her activities on school literacy than on real literacy. Lynn's instructional activities are more fun than functional; more pretend than a pretense of real literacy.

The first component also involves an envisionment of what classroom contexts teachers can create so that learners might engage in, see demonstrated, and come to value the attitudes and strategies involved in successful written language use and learning. We found demonstration notably missing. In Randy's classroom, opportunities to see demonstrated and come to value the strategies he teaches are infrequent and, when offerred, so isolated from how that skill would be used in a successful performance outside the school instructional setting that these curricular dimensions become lost. Randy needs to read and write when his children read and write as well as invite other language users into his classroom to read and write in the presence of the children. Similarly, he needs to discuss what strategies he is using to solve real reading and writing tasks in which he is engaged. Literacy is learned through involvement, both our own involvement and involvement with other more proficient and successful language users.

On the other hand, Randy does talk to the children about what they are and should be trying to do, thus giving them an opportunity to value what he values. There is some evidence that this talk works: students seem to share with Randy an understanding that if they were good at sounding out, they would be successful in their regular classroom.

Lynn, it seems to us, is the only teacher of the three who systematically has provided children, via her organizational plan, the opportunity to engage in, see demonstrated, and come to value the strategies of successful written language use. In large part this is because she uses group activities which are more or less open ended, thus allowing children to enter and exit at their own level of ability.

The second component is the mental trip that the learner takes as a function of engagement in the planned activities, while the third involves the relationship between the intended and the actualized. On the surface, each of the teachers engages in something that looks like this transactive third component. Instructional activities are planned based on an envisionment of literacy and the literate. Student mental trips are monitored and, on this basis, adjustments are made. Yet, any real coordination among the components of curriculum is missing. Mary and Carol emphasize a process approach to instruction, yet use product measures to monitor student "trips." They stress motivation, attitude and strategies, yet judge effectiveness on the basis of skill and convention.

Curricular change is clearly needed. First, the interface between organizing for instruction in reading and organizing for instruction in special education needs renegotiation. The focus of special education generally is on the individual and the tailoring of an instructional program uniquely geared to the learner. This has been stressed so much that both Randy and Nancy have developed totally individual programs. Operationally, this means that students rarely work together during the reading/language arts/English period. Neither Randy nor Nancy read when the children are reading nor write when the children are writing. Few opportunities are provided for students to be in the presence of other language users -- either their peers or more proficient adults -- as they engage in literacy tasks. Under these circumstances sharing is limited, if it exists at all. A more social environment, where children might see demonstrated and come to value the strategies others use to be successful, would do much to improve the quality of the current instructional program in reading and writing.

Second, a unified perspective is needed. The curricular pieces in this district do not pull together. Functional literacy and school literacy replace real literacy as goals. Articulation of goals between levels -- elementary, middle school, high school -- does not exist and has not been made explicit. Within classrooms, internal consistency between the goals espoused and the how and what of teaching are not finely orchestrated.

Some districts believe that one way to acquire a unified perspective is to adopt a common set of commercial materials. We do not make this recommendation. To us, it is a quick fix in that it does not encourage a consciousness raising as to what literacy and a good literacy program ought to entail. Many districts which buy commericial reading programs and train their teachers to use them have a unified perspective, but not a good program. The adoption of the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills in this district as a evaluation device has in fact had this unifying but, from our vantage point, negative effect. Rather than quick fixes, what is needed is for teachers to discuss and negotiate what it is that they think their program is to do. A district curriculum guide project, if handled correctly, could serve as a vehicle for clarifying beliefs about reading and unifying the program. The final document may be less important than the process that the staff would have to go through in reaching consensus. Given the process orientation to reading espoused by the staff, that effort would be theoretically consistent as well as reap curricular benifits in the form of improved instruction.

Rethinking the Relationship Between Special Education and Regular Education. Discussions of curriculum necessarily get one to think about the interface between special education and regular education. With the exception of Nancy's classroom, each of the teachers clearly demonstrated that special education was subservient to regular education in this district. Randy's implicit assumption that his kids would be accepted if he could teach them systematic routines for solving the kinds of problems they were likely to face in their regular classroom fostered this attitude. Lynn initially appears more independent. Yet she, too, is rightfully worried about how well her kids are doing in their regular classes. To guard against failure, Lynn provides minilessons on a variety of topics that she knows other teachers expect her kids to know. Nancy is the most autonomous. From Nancy's perspective what these kids need are practical survival skills, not classroom coping skills for activities they will not use. Nancy's attitude gives her more curricular freedom than does Randy's or Lynn's. One working hypothesis we might be able to make is that the older the group of special education student that the teacher teaches, the more control of the curriculum the teacher displays.

While Nancy's attitude is functional given where her kids are at and the growing academic gap that they exhibit between themselves and their peers ("there's no way to catch up"), Randy's and Lynn's attitudes are equally functional given the fact that their kids do need to learn to cope in regular classrooms ("help kids find their way"). Given hard fought for moments of success, insensitive regular education teachers can easily set their children back and minimize the progress the special education teachers have carefully wrought.

Initially, Lynn and Randy struck us as almost paranoid about the lack of support offered by their building principals and many members of their regular education faculty. Yet when we interviewed these people, we found Randy's and Lynn's "paranoia" grounded in reality. Special education, and special education students, are clearly the administration's last priority. One administrator said it quite bluntly, "I see my function as serving the majority of the kids first and minority groups, such as special education, second."

Randy, Lynn, and Nancy all see regular education as having little concern for individual children. Either kids get it or they don't. All of the teachers refer to regular education teachers as doing "group instruction." Each teacher seemed to write off, if not tolerate, what from our perspective is bad teaching. Yet, under these conditions, both their paranoia and the general aversion in special education to group instruction is rooted in the reality of schools and circumstances of instruction.

Special education is also set off from regular education by a kind of paternalism between special education personnel and special eduation students. Both Randy and Lynn spend a good deal of their time protecting their kids. Much of this is done indirectly by taking time to talk to the regular educators in whose classroom their children spend part or most of the day. Rather than help the teacher develop open ended activities so that a wide variety of children at a wide variety of ability levels could achieve (regular educators do not have homogeneous groups any more than special educators), Randy and Lynn spend their time trying to get special consideration for their children (i.e., reducing spelling lists from 20 to 10 words, one page reports rather than three). While on one level this behavior appears humanistic, on other it is paternalistic. Nancy and the director of special education, too, can be implicated in this process. Since regular education teachers make few adjustments for special education kids, both have been working on the administration and members of the school board mustering support for a junior high/high school tracking system so that special education students can be placed with, what the school calls, "gray--zone kids" (low achieving border-line special education kids) in special sections of social studies, science, and other required courses for graduation.

In the end this paternalistic attitude does not serve the children. They end up in bondage. Rather than working on helping special education students develop coping strategies -- some which are social rather than psychological -- they leave their students vulnerable; in need of protection by special education or a similar agency. While this makes the special education teacher feel important, it is in the end a very unhealthy educational situation.

An analogy should help to clarify the point. In reading, whether or not the teacher gives readers the pronunciation of words perceived unknown or teaches them various strategies that they might use when they encounter something unknown (skip it, read ahead and see if it is needed, etc.), makes a good deal of difference. The first approach works, but develops dependency. In order to read the child needs an all knowing adult to solve his or her problems. The second approach may initially seem harder, but it fosters independence rather than dependence. Similarly, in the special education/regular education instance, protecting the child works, but in the long run does not serve to improve either the regular education program nor the independence of the learner. In the end this humanistic paternalism serves no one -- not the children, not the teachers, not the administration, not the public. Yet, if a different attitude were prevalent, it could become the catalyst for improving instruction both in special and regular education. We believe this merits consideration by special education and special educators. Sometimes the path of least resistance is, upon reflection, not attractive.

Orchestrating Language Theory and Instructional Practice. A related theme to the one previously discussed is vulnerability. Just as language teachers must be given the right to test their best instructional hypotheses to grow, so language learners must be able to test their latest language discoveries to grow. Envisioning language in this fashion means that all growth necessarily involves risk. Generally learners only test those things that they think have a reasonable chance of succeeding. Nonetheless they are sometimes wrong. When things don't work out as predicted, language learners must be reflexive. Often this process leads to new hypotheses which in turn need to be formulated and tested.

If this conception of growth in literacy is accurate, it means that teachers must protect the right of learners to test both correct and incorrect hypotheses. And it is exactly at this juncture that direct instruction, monitoring student performance, and immediate corrective feedback -- hallmarks of much instruction in special education -- come in direct conflict with what we currently know about language learning.

Because of the student's failure in academic setting and special education's emphasis on individualized programs, special education teachers are encouraged to make instruction explicit and to monitor carefully each and every action that the learner takes. In all three classrooms one cannot help but be overwhelmed with how vulnerable these policies make the children. No decision, no matter how small and insignificant, goes by unobserved.

One of the differences between reading and writing is that writing leaves a visible trail. Reading silently, readers can correct, self-correct, and even misinterpret things without getting caught. On the other hand, in writing, every move, every in-process decision, is visible and ready data for those who wish to use it to intimidate the written language learner. By getting children to read orally we equal the odds; kids are as vulnerable while reading as they are while writing. It needs to be said, however, that in light of the centrality of risk taking to language learning generally and to reading and writing specifically, part of becoming a good language arts teacher is not taking undue advantage of the vulnerability of the learner.

Randy's approach to instruction is to get the language user to express orally the strategies he or she is to use in figuring out an unknown word in reading -- what word would make sense given what you already know (i.e., see 'cup' example), look at the vowel, determine how it functions in this instance, sound out the word. Randy initially wants the child to verbalize these rules and then have them become internal. His approach finds support in Vygotsky's notion of inner speech and its relationship to socialized speech in a theory of language development (1978). Yet curricularly, his approach makes the students extremely dependent on him as is evidenced by the constant knocking on their desk in order to get his attention and assistance. Even after helping John think through how it is that he might independently go about working through an example, John asks, "Do I write it down?" Randy responds, "Trust yourself," but this event, as well as the constant knocking, is evidence that Randy's instructional techniques are developing instructional dependence rather than independence. In the end Randy's instructional procedures make the learners instructionally vulnerable and afraid to take risks without his approval.

The effect of Lynn's instructional approach is less evident on the surface than is Randy's, yet is very much the same. Every classroom activity must be graded. Each day starts with a status report on how the student is doing. This involves handing back papers which have been graded. All activities in Lynn's room result in something which can be graded. Even during story writing (i.e., see cash register stories), an activity which often necessitates several drafts when professional authors engage in the task, are evaluated. Entries in the writing journals in Lynn's classrooms are graded more loosely (checks and pluses), but nonetheless are graded and in some instance redone if what was produced did not match expectation.

In some ways Nancy has solved some of these problems. Kids are less vulnerable in Nancy's classroom than in any of the other classrooms. Nancy allows kids to read books, to write in their writing folders, and to engage on the computer without constant monitoring. While she grades some things, students understand that their writing, for example, is first draft work and that later they will be expected to look through their folders and take something to a more polished form. Nancy's policy allows students to take risks, test hypotheses, and thus grow as would language users not in a school situation. Interestingly, students in Nancy's classroom seem to rise to this level of independence by taking more responsibility for themselves and their actions. They, of course, are older, too. Yet, no student ever balked in Nancy's clas at an assignment. This is not true in either of the other two classrooms we observed.

Making Schools and Literacy Tools for Learning. A somewhat related matter is the whole issue of school literacy as opposed to real literacy. This issue interfaces with the issues of time-on-task, direct instruction, and assertive discipline. In one sense it poses the question of who should be in charge of learning. In another sense it questions extant notions about how to organize for instruction in reading.

If one, for example, watches real writers, what one notices is that they do a lot of things in addition to write. They read. They sharpen their pencils. They talk to others interested in their topic in an attempt to think through what they want to say. They sketch to make complex ideas clear. They produce rough drafts and ask trusted others to read and react. They revise at the local and global level. Once they are sure they have the ideas the way they want them, they give their evolving manuscript to a known good speller to check their spelling and make final grammatical touches. After all this they send their 'final draft' on to a publisher where the process is often repeated several more times before being made public.

One way to conceptualize the complexity of a literacy event such as this is to think about it in terms of a task or content structure, a participant structure, and a modality structure. These structures relate roughly to what Halliday calls the field, mode, and tenor of a literacy event (Halliday and Hasan, 1980). While it is true that there is a task structure; that is, an order to how one approaches writing, this often is less rigid than English textbooks assume. Clearly it is not formulaic. Often writers run alternate approaches to how they plan to present the content of what they want to talk about by colleagues to get their input before they decide to try one of several options. Some content structures, such as what is the best way to teach reading, are quite arbitrary, and much more in debate by theorists in the field than beginning reading programs pose to either teachers or children. The point is that in the real world task structures have some "wiggle" and are negotiated by the language user in the process of use. In commericial materials available for teaching reading, writing, and other language arts this wiggle is sometimes posed as non-existent.

To make things worse, in the real world, every literacy task has a participant structure. That is, writing and reading are social events. Writers physically talk and give their rough drafts over to others to read. The participant structure is quite evident in most literacy events where writing is the highlighted or dominant activity. In reading, however, readers often discuss things with others, run concepts they have read by others for reaction, and critical readers -- the ones our society prizes the most -- often argue their way through the text. These are social acts. The participant structure allows the language user to "wiggle," if you will, the task structure. If something doesn't work out as planned, either in reading or writing, social interaction can often clear up problems or illuminate strategies for how one can move ahead with the problem still in place.

Less evident perhaps is the modality structure that surrounds natural literacy events in the real world. To some degree we have already highlighted some of these. Writing involves speaking, listening, reading, sketching, movement. Often writers read their drafts outloud to see if it "sounds right" or "flows." Examples, graphs, illustrations -- in short, art -- are used to clarify points. How things visually look when done is important in making sure that one's message is clear. The modality structure that surrounds a literacy event also allows the language user to wiggle the task structure or compensate when no participant structure is available.

This discussion is important and bears directly on literacy teaching in special education classrooms. In all too many of the instructional instances reported all that remains is the task structure. Even when children are permitted to wiggle the task structure on their own as they often can do in Mary's and Carol's classrooms, the natural participant structure is not permitted to occur.

While interactions with the teacher can be seen as a participant structure of a sort, this participant structure operates quite differently than does participant structures in the real world. Rather than wiggle the task structure, what the teacher does is refocus the students attention to the task structure (see Toni's interactions Dale and John for examples). If the task structure is unclear -- in fact we would argue that the lack of clarity relative to how a literacy task might be successfully undertaken is what in fact makes it interesting -- the learner has no recourse but to once again call on the teacher or remain stumped. Children are not permitted to talk to one another. Often, in special education classrooms a given learner is the only one doing a particular task because of special education's focus on individualized instruction. But even if this were not the case, talk is taboo, it is considered the anthethesis to time-on-task. So the very way the task gets defined for instructional purposes distorts what an instance of the same literacy event on the outside. Participant structures often make routine task structures interesting.

The same problem holds with modality structures. For the most part students work in and manipulate print. School literacy become verbocentric. In real reading events one can move to context, pictures, logos, settings, and the like to make sense of the print. By striping literacy events of their natural modality structures for purposes of schooling we make school literacy event unnaturally dependent on verbal ability and thus again make school reading and writing tasks harder than they are in real life.

Since special education kids have been unsuccessful in the regular classroom setting and since many teachers, like Toni, believe that it is because they do not attend as carefully as they should, asertive discipline/behavior modification programs look appealing. In operation, these programs operate to refocus the child's attention to the task structure should the language learner ever dare attempt to build a supportive participant structure in the classroom. The effect is to make literacy learning hard. Further they make it appear that the goal of literacy instruction is discipline rather than learning. Literacy instruction takes on negative valances under these conditions.

From our vantage point anything that makes schools appear as if the function of schooling is discipline as opposed to learning needs to be seriously reconsidered and renegotiated by educators.

While programs of assertive discipline affect more than just the language arts program, there effect is particularly devasting given our observations and the fact that we want to instill in children the notion that reading and writing are not so much skills as they are tools for life-long learning. Put simply, programs such as assertive discipline lead to goal displacement for the language arts curriculum.

CONCLUSIONS

This paper is a first attempt to lay out and describe the current status of teaching reading comprehension in special education classrooms in the United States. In many ways, what our analysis and discussion illustrate is the complexity of the phenomenon and task we have involved ouselves in accomplishing. While the contract that supported this research does not call for us to work with the teachers who so graciously allowed us into their classrooms, this is a future agenda for discussion and negotiation. Clearly there are no simple answers. Each of these teachers is successful and each has a theory of reading in operation which makes sense and is adaptive given their setting. To change one component is to "wiggle" other components, some of which do not appear very "wiggable" at this time.

On a broader scale, there is no guarantee that the classrooms we observed allow us to generalize beyond their bounds. Yet, in some ways this is unimportant. What a description of these classrooms allows the stakeholders involved in reading instruction and special education to do is be reflective and in this process pose an manageable but humble agenda for negotiation.

It is important in closing to restate that we have attempted to separate our descriptions of the classroom from our analysis and interpretation of this experience as much as possible. By returning our expanding field notes to the participants involved we hope we have increased the trustworthiness of our classroom descriptions if not our perceptions of co-occurring patterns and anomalies. The constructs we developed -- participant structures, task structures, modality structures, etc. -- do not really exist, but rather are figments of our narrative. We must always remember this so that we do not reify what is in reality more complex. What these constructs represent are our attempts to make sense of and think through what we perceived as happening. They offer a starting point, nothing more, in what has to become an agenda for negotiation in reading and special education.

NOTES

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(02) During the first year of this contract we did a synthesis of instructional research in reading comprehension. The results of this effort are published in: Crismose, A. (Ed.). (1985). Landscapes: A state of the art assessment of reading comprehension research 1974-84. Bloomington, IN: Center for Studies in Reading and Language, 100 Smith Research Center, Indiana University.

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SECTION II

CLASSROOM INSIGHTS

Chapter Two

CURRICULUM AS THEORY DRIVEN: INSIGHTS FROM SIX CLASSROOMS

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INTRODUCTION

As explained in depth in Volume III and, as outlined in the Introduction to this volume, cross-talks were held after the pilot round of observations. During those cross talks, members of the research teams contributed what they considered to be preliminary findings to each of the nine research issues. After several research questions had been addressed, however, it became apparent that answering the research questions directly was not possible. For example, in discussing research question #1.1, "Is reading comprehension actually taught?", the researchers concluded that all the teachers believed that they taught reading comprehension - what varied was how each teacher defined reading comprehension. What was an emergent finding of the cross talks, then, was how difficult synthesis became because of variations in teacher beliefs.

We, the authors of this chapter, observed reading comprehension instruction in six different classrooms - and found ourselves consistently fascinated with the powerfulness of these teacher beliefs. In each classroom that we observed, every aspect of the curriculum - from the role of the learner to the selection and use of materials - was a reflection of the teacher´s theory of reading.

To convey what seem to us as the salient differences in these belief systems, and to provide a frame for viewing the thick descriptions, we have developed four continuums - What is reading comprehension? Who is in charge of the learning? What characterizes effective literacy activities? and How is meaning determined? - and discuss briefly the polar positions on each continuum.

To communicate the powerfulness of teacher beliefs, we provide relatively extensive decriptions of all six classrooms. We think that, by doing so, we provide our readers with the opportunity to not only see what we saw, but what we could not see. In spite of the somewhat lengthly document that results, we do this for two reasons: 1) We feel that "representativeness" should be determined by the reader and not by us as writers. While we think that some of our teachers are similiar relative to the continuums we have constructed, we want to present our data "raw" (Herzfeld, 1985), so that readers can draw their own generalizations; and 2) As teachers we were fascinated by the experience of finding out what other classrooms were like. We want others to have the same opportunity.

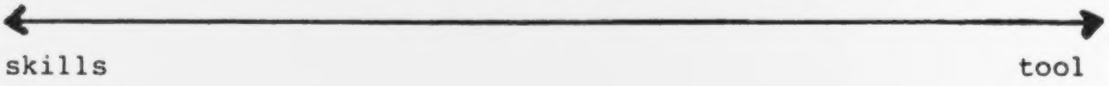
We order the presentation of teachers from left to right along the continuums. In that way, we conclude with the teacher who comes the closest to holding our far-right theoretical orientation. We hope that, by doing so, you will be able to see the teachers as we saw them.

In the remainder of the paper, we suggest that effective educational change needs to consider the influence of belief on practice and thus must begin by providing teachers the opportunity to reflect upon their beliefs within an environment that recognizes both teachers and students as learners. We conclude by arguing that during this reflexive process we, as educators, should focus on usefulness rather than on truth to evaluate instructional effectiveness.

We would like to emphasize that these decisions - the continuums, the excerpts from all six classrooms, the ordering along the continuums - represent our attempt to make sense of very complex data and very complex classrooms. Each decision then is a construct we have imposed on the data and, while these decisions were made so as to highlight points we wanted to make, we are also aware that they obscured other distinctions. We would like to apologize for this limitation inherent to discourse.

FOUR CONTINUUMS

Continuum #1: What is reading comprehension?



The first, and in a way, ´parent´ continuum concerns the definition of reading comprehension. Teachers on the left end of the continuum consider reading as a series of hierarchical subskills that necessitate direct instruction. These subskills are taught in discrete pieces - phonics, vocabulary, structural analysis - and reading comprehension is assumed to be built on this foundation. Subskills are thus comprehension prerequisites.

On the opposite end of the continuum, reading is equivalent to reading comprehension, a naturally occurring event that occurs as one makes sense of the print environment. Reading is seen not as a set of discrete subskills, but as a gestalt; it is believed that readers learn to read by reading. Reading is viewed not as a product in and of itself but as a tool for lifelong learning.

Continuum #2: Who is in charge of the learning?

others as knowledgeable

self as knowledgeable

The second continuum deals with the teachers´ and students´ conception of "Who´s responsible for the learning?" Teachers on the far left of this continuum see others (textbook writers, authors of reading texts and tests) as the experts - as the people who ´know about´ reading. These teachers depend on others to develop curriculum. The publisher then has ownership of the classroom. As these teachers see their role as following the publisher´s materials, neither the teachers nor the students have much choice. Students learn from this demonstration and also see others as the experts. In the classroom, they hold their teachers´ responsible for their learning; that is, teachers know the ´right´ answers. Through demonstration, teachers who are other-dependent foster this same dependency in their students.

On the other end of the continuum, teachers have come to legitimize the insights they have gained from experience. These teachers use their students as informants and combine that information with their own insights to construct a curriculum that is meaningful and functional within the context of the classroom. These teachers see their role as supporting the learner in the learning process, not as adhering to a teacher´s manual. Choice is an integral part of classroom and both teachers and students, in taking responsibility for their own learning, engage in decision making. Again, through demonstrations, students come to believe in themselves and see themselves as capable of independent learning in school as they were pre-school.

Continuum #3 - What characterizes effective literacy activities?

closed, private

open, social

This continuum distinguishes the kinds of activities that teachers establish for their classrooms. On the left, activites can be characterized as having closed entries and exits. Closed entry activites require prerequisite knowledges for participation; closed exit activities have criterion levels for successful performance. Learning is not a shared experience; as students work they are advised to keep their eyes on their own papers and not to talk.

At the right end of the curriculum, learning is a natural event and every classroom activity has both open entry and open exit. These activities accommodate the range of experiences of the participants and enable each student to make decisions about participation. As a natural event, learning here is social and the students and the teacher work together to construct meaning and thus increase knowledge.

Continuum #4 - How is meaning determined?

judgment negotiation

The fourth continuum considers meaning of activities and experiences. At the left end of the continuum, meaning is not socially negotiated. Students are often penalized for being wrong, that is, for differing from the published or otherwise pre-established ´right´ answers. Students are therefore subjected to frequent judgments on their performances and the fear of being wrong limits the risk taking that occurs.

At the other end of the continuum, meaning is socially negotiated; there are no right and wrong answers. For example, Kathy Short (1985) writes of a group of first graders who were discussing "The Three Billy Goats Gruff". Several of the students sympathized with the troll´s position.

> Sheri: It (the bridge) might bust. It´s his (the troll´s) home. It would be noisy and loud when they (the billy goats) trapped over the bridge.
>
> Stephan: He had a right to get upset because he might have been asleep or he might have been trying to eat.
>
> Sheri: Yeh. It was his home and they were too loud. He needed to relax and so he got mad.
>
> Erin: Yeh. But he should share bridges.
>
> Stephanie: It might have been that he used to be kind of nice and now he´s mean.
>
> (Short, 1985)

In this type of environment, there are no penalties for divergent answers. Instead, such answers are valued and explored. The risk taking and mistake-making which are essential to learning, receive support, not censure.

SIX CLASSROOMS

Pam
Intermediate level LD
Self-contained

10:15 As we enter the classroom, Pam is giving directions for what appears to be independent seatwork. The kids have an English ditto to complete - locating 20 verbs, then selecting 10 and writing a sentence for each of them. The second assignment is a ditto on whales. "Use the chart to answer the questions on whales," Pam instructs the class. The kids also have to do a "math sheet" and spend time at the listening center. Pam tells them, "Today´s tape is about a famous soccer player". (We don´t recognize his name, nor do the kids.)

Robert: How many corrections do I have?

Pam: I haven´t put the names up yet but several people do have corrections.

One of the girls is asked to pass out folders. Kids ask questions about what they are permitted to do when finished. Dee goes up to the table where Pam is preparing for the first reading group. She has a question about the whale ditto.

Pam: Which whale is the largest in size? Which column tells you their size? (Dee apparently has difficulty answering the question; Pam sounds impatient)

Linda is now at the table. She asks Pam to read some words for her. She points to the problem words and Pam reads them for her. Now Jane comes to the table with a question about the math sheet. Susan raises her hand for a few seconds, but then goes to the table for assistance with a word she doesn´t recognize. Next, Robert and Kenny come up. Linda starts back to the table.

Pam: Some of you are forgetting a rule, which is what?

Kids: Raise your hand.

Kids who need help now raise their hands. Pam calls Tammy to the table. Tammy brings the whale ditto with her. Pam reads across the columns of her chart, asking Tammy what they ´tell.´ Kenny´s hand is in the air.

Tammy continues working at the table while Pam fills out some things that look like cards.

Pam: It´s not that hard! (sounding irritated) Which one tells you how big it is?

Tammy: Length?

Pam: Length and (inaudible)...Which one has the biggest number? Which one has the BIGGEST number? Which one has the BIGGEST NUMBER? (Tammy answers.) Okay, now look over there. What whale is that?

Tammy´s problem is solved. She returns to her seat and Pam directs her attention to Sheila who has a question about the English ditto.

Pam: Rhonda? (Rhonda brings her whale ditto to the table. Pam reads it to her.) Which one has an unusual ivory tusk on its head?

Rhonda: This one?

Pam: That says the world´s fastest swimmer. It doesn´t say anything about tusks. It´s in this column. Look for these two words - you can find them.

Meanwhile, Linda has gone to Lorraine´s desk. It looks as if she´s asking for help. Jane´s hand is up. Now Kenny´s hand is up as well. Pam suggests that Jane gets busy and then calls on Linda who has the same question about the whale ditto that Rhonda had. Kenny´s hand is still up. Pam calls on Jane who also asks about the tusk. Kenny continues to periodically put his hand it the air, but has not yet attracted Pam´s attention.

10:33 The first reading group convenes at the table in the front of the room. Pam talks about the procedures they will be following. No one has any questions and the group performs as though they´ve had experience at this, so we assume these are familiar directions.

Pam: We´re going to read some sentences. I want you to read the sentence to yourself so that it comes out nice and smooth. Then say if it is asking, telling or exciting. (She tells the kids that she´ll be asking questions about the sentences. She asks that they read with expression, so that if it is an exciting sentence, it sounds like one.)

Three kids are in the group - two boys and one girl.

Each of them has a bookmark of some sort to use. Alan reads the first sentence.

Alan: SAM IS IN THE JET.

Pam: What kind of sentence is that?

Alan: Telling.

Pam: Where is Sam?

Alan: In the jet.

Eric: BOB IS UP TO BAT.

Pam: What kind of sentence is that?

Eric: Asking.

Pam: Who is up to bat?

Eric: Bob.

Melissa: THE WHIZ IS A BAT.

Pam tells Melissa that she has not read it right - she has missed one of the words. Melissa re-reads the sentence until she gets it right.

Melissa: THE WHIZ IS AT BAT.

The kids continue to read in round robin fashion, "It is a fly ball", "The cub sat in the sun", "That is a sad puppy...Can a jet fly in the fog?"

Melissa: TOM HIT HIM IN THE LIP...TOM HIT HIM ON THE LIP.

Pam: What kind of sentence is it? Melissa looks up, pondering.) Look at your clue at the end. Don´t look at me...

Pam tells the kids that they are now going to read the sentences again.

Pam: I´m not going to ask you questions this time. I want to see how smoothly you can read without mistakes. If it´s an exciting sentence, I want to hear it.

Melissa: SHE HAS TO RUSH TO GET TO THE BUS.

Pam: You put in an extra word.

Melissa: SHE HAS TO RUSH TO GET THE BUS.

The kids go through the list a second and third time. Melissa makes more mistakes and Pam tells her: "You read that sentence to yourself and get it all figured out."

Melissa: TED AND SID MET AT THE SHIP. (She looks up at Pam, realizing she has made a mistake.)

Pam: Now read the whole thing again. (Pam makes /ssss/ sounds with kids to help with the word ´ship´.)

Melissa: (referring to Sid): Is that supposed to be a name?

Pam tells her that it is. When the group has finished reading, they suddenly bolt for the back of the classroom. Pam stops by her bookshelf to pick up a flashlight. Blinds are drawn in the far corner and the three kids line up in front of the word cards that are posted on the wall. We hear a clicking sound and look up to see that Pam has set a metronome on the shelf beside the window.

One by one, the group members shine the flashlight on the word list and read from the bottom to the top of the ´word ladder" and back down once again. They read in time to the rhythm ticked out by the metronome. Melissa has the most trouble. Once the kids have read through the list, Pam resets the metronome to a faster pace, and they read again. Again, Melissa has problems. Pam advises her, "Don´t start till you´re ready"...

(Later that morning)...The third group of 5th and 6th graders - Neil, Travis and Elliot - is called to the reading table.

Pam: Okay. This is your lucky day. You get to hear another story.

Neil: Oh boy. (Pam begins reading a story about Mr. X and Mr. Q.) I´ve heard this story before.

Pam: Now let´s look at the filmstrip at some words that have the sound X and sound Y in them. (She rolls the filmstrip past several exercises...The particular part she´s searching for is quite a ways into the filmstrip. Travis is suprised at how much of the filmstrip they have already done.)

Pam: The key word for the letter X is box. Say it: ´box´. (The kids say "box" in unison.) It´s a k and an s combined.

They now start round robin reading of the word list on the film strip. X words include flex, phlox and tax. Pam provides sentences for each of the words: e.g. "Phlox is a large plant that has colorful flowers."

The film now changes and words are presented as follows:

nex
  t
next

jin
  x
jinx

The reading group continues with Pam providing sentences until a word appears that no one knows: quince.

Pam: It´s something that is used to make marmalade.

Neil: But how I am supposed to say it if I don´t know what it means?

Pam: Sound it out, Neil.

Stepping Back

As we compare these episodes with the information Pam provided in the interview, the influence of beliefs upon curriculum becomes apparent. First, she sees reading as a series of subskills, providing direct instruction in a hierachical pattern: sound-letter relationships and phonic rules, words in isolation, phrases, sentences. For example, in addition to the reading curriculum captured in these notes, Pam utilizes the accompanying writing and spelling portions of the Herman Method program. However, there are no paper and pencil activities in the writing program until the second year, "because (the kids) shouldn´t even be writing until they have got enough skills to do it successfully...a, m, h, i, t and p are the first six sounds and letters that the kids learn. Next they make words."

Secondly, she has relinguished control of her program to the author of the Herman Method. As one of twenty five LD teachers who piloted the Herman Method for Reversing Reading Failure in a midwest school district, Pam explained the frustrations she was feeling prior to adopting this program, "Special education teachers tend to take things and draw from this and that...a mish-mash...I could never put down on paper that I started here and this is where I ended up." But now she can. She has a clear sense of where she is going and where she has been and this security has eliminated her frustrations. She is quite pleased with her results.

We ask, "Is there ever any variation to the sequence or the activities?"

"No. She [the author of the program] has it built in such a way that you really can´t skip anything." Because Pam believes that all LD kids "need consistency and structure," and the Herman program is "extremely structured," Pam feels that this is "one of the keys to its success".

Just as Pam relies upon an expert, so, too, do her students. She has set herself up as the single knowledge source in her classroom; kids are not encouraged to help each other; learning is private, not social. This becomes apparent when we note that during the first thirteen minutes of ´independent´ seat work, while Pam was attempting to prepare for the first reading group, there were fifteen requests for assistance. By insisting on learner dependency, she has created a situation in which the entire classroom can come to a standstill should she, for any reason, be unavailable. Pam does not appear to trust her students to take responsibility for their own learning. Likewise, she does not appear to trust herself, as she has turned over to the publisher the responsibility for the curriculum.

Rather than reflect on the possible shortcomings of her curriculum, Pam consistently views performance difficulties as the students´ problem. She attributes their miscues, for instance, to a "lack of concentration," rather consider that her insistance on word perfect oral reading may cause some students anxiety. While adherence to the Herman program has resolved Pam´s frustrations as a decision maker, we sense that her inflexibility has created a frustrating situation for her students. Referring to her students, fifty percent of whom are minority students, she says, "They have learned so much wrong...The diagraph th...some have learned it as /f/...thin is /fin/, that is /dat/...I don´t know if it is dialect or what...but I have to teach them that the th sound is made with the tongue and not with the lips...".

This lack of reflexivity also explains why it is possible for Pam to ignore or overlook indications that three or four of her students, who always deliver rapid and perfect performances, are capable of demonstrating proficiencies far beyond anything the Herman Method has to offer. Her decision to abrogate responsibility by allowing the publisher to determine what constitutes an effective literacy experience, simultaneouly frees her from having to examine the experiences or materials provided. Consequently, if the expert says that all students must practice sounding out the word quince, Pam in no way feels compelled to challenge that instructional mandate.

Pam's beliefs put her to the left on all four continuums. In her classroom, reading comprehension instruction involves a series of publisher-determined subskills. The activities that have been developed to teach those subskills are built on a developmental model - it is assumed that students need to have mastered certain skills before they can begin work on another. These activities thus have both closed entries (prerequisites are mandated) and closed exits (mastery is required). In order to move the students through the skill sequence, Pam constantly monitors their performance and like Melissa, some students become more anxious about being wrong and therefore less willing to take the risks that effective learning requires.

Sheila
Junior High LD
Resource Room

Observations on two separate days capture the essence of reading instruction in Sheila's junior high inner-city classroom.

Day #1

Class is already underway when we arrive. Sheila is reading a four paragraph selection about the military spotting something in the sky and mistaking Santa Claus for a threat to national security. The kids are following along as she reads. Sheila reads the questions that follow the passage which was taken from the McCall-Crabbs series, Book E. Jacob is asked to define the word 'hostile'.

Jacob: (Mumbles something, then mutters): Friendly?

Sheila: Friendly, hostile. Those are opposities, good! Roy, what do you have for number one? (Roy gives a response that is apparently not the one that Sheila was hoping for). Who has something else?

The answer to the question is North America. Although many of the kids offer names of countries within the continent, no one gets the question right. They discuss the fact that they were all close, but not right.

Sheila now reads number two, asking Jim for his answer. He responds correctly and Sheila asks how he arrived at his answer.

Jim: It was in the story.

Sheila: Tell me two things in the story...two clues that told you it might be winter...Two clues. Can you find two clues? (One of the other kids answers). That´s right, it said something about Santa Claus. What else? There´s one other clue...When does Santa Claus come?

Kids: In the winter.

Sheila: What month?

Mark: December.

Sheila: Number four. This is a very tricky one. Ann, why don´t you try that one for me?

Ann: C.

Ann´s answer is correct. The next question has two choices which begin with "all of..." and "none of..." Sheila advises the kids that any time they see ´all´ or ´none´ on a test, they shouldn´t select either answer, as nothing is ever ´all´ or ´none´.

Russ´s things drop to the floor. Sheila calls attention to them and, when he picks them up, tells him to sit up. The group is on a question which asks if the piece is factual, very serious or a joke. Jacob decides it is very serious but when asked to support his decision, says he doesn´t know why.

Sheila: You had a reason for choosing it. Everyone has an opinion, right?

Jacob: I just picked it.

Sheila: NO, there was something in your little head that made you pick it. Jim, you want to help him out or are you just stretching? (Sheila refers to the manual). Let´s see what it was. It was a joke...

They go to the next question. Whomever answers seems to have given an unlikely response.

Sheila: Oh, I don´t think so. (She asks for support from the story and the kids begin searching. Someone volunteers to read, TOOK TO THE AIR.) Well, ´took to the air´ is close, but the answer is d. (The group is just about to move to the next question when Sheila looks again at the manual.) Wait, I think I was looking at the wrong answer. It should have been C - IT TOOK TO THE AIR...

The lesson ends as Sheila tells the students, "Count up how many you got right. For 3, you got 5.0; for 6, you got 6.6..." Sheila continues to read the grade equivalents out to the kids. They don´t seem to realize that the grade equivalents are on a two line chart on the bottom of the page they have just read. Later, Sheila tells us "They like to see themselves make progress."

Sheila (drawing the students´ attention to the range of scores found on the page): You´ll notice this goes to 11th grade, 7 months.

Sheila informs the kids that the last 11 minutes of the class period will be spent working in one of the skill books they do regularly. She begins passing out materials.

DAY #2

It is 8:40 when we walk in. Sheila is handing out dittos.

Sheila: What do you think "Little Rocket of the Airways" could be about? (She hands a copy to us. It is a selection from Getting the Facts, Book C, by Barnell Loft.) Steve, sit up.

Sheila goes to the overhead to record their responses. She has an outline and the kids copy it onto the back of their papers.

Sheila: What do you think the little rocket is?

Bob: A hummingbird.

Sheila: For subject, mark hummingbird. Okay, now draw your lines and mark your paragraphs. Circle all the hummingbirds and then tell me how many you have.

Bob: Nine?

Sheila: You found nine? There are eight. Try and locate eight. Now, how many facts will you have on this one?

Bob: Five.

Sheila: Why will we have five? (Answer is inaudible). That´s right, because there are FIVE paragraphs. We´re going to try to get all our main ideas down to one word to see if we can tell about (inaudible). In this story, we´re going to find out how we can describe our hummingbird.

She reminds Shawn that he hadn´t marked his paragraphs yet. She points to the paragraphs for him. Sheila then asks the group what kind of information is in the paragraph. The students talk about the appearance of the tiny bird. Sheila instructs them to underline small as that is their key fact.

Sheila: Okay, Robby, let´s have you read the second paragraph to me. (Robby reads.) What is this paragraph about?

Kids: Flight.

Sheila: Can we break this word down? He flies what? (The discussion turns to flight as something the creature is able to do. One kid calls it a talent). What´s another word that means talent? You can write, can´t you? That´s something you can do. It´s a ...

Student: Skill.

Sheila: What this paragraph is all about is flying skill. Okay, Doug, read paragraph three for us.

The door opens and another teacher, Alice, sticks her head in and asks to interupt Sheila for a moment. After instructing the students to finish the paragraph, Sheila picks up a paddle and is gone. Doug finishes the paragraph almost immediately. We wonder what the kids will do, but nobody even looks at anyone else. We hear a loud /swat/ out in the hall. Sheila returns and puts the paddle away. We later discover that Sheila often accepts the role of disciplinarian for other teachers.)

Sheila: Shawn, are you done? (Shawn grunts, but we can´t tell if it´s a ´yes´ grunt or a ´no´ grunt). Everybody finished? Okay, Doug you were reading the third paragraph. What does ´fearless´ mean? You said he was ´fearless´.

Robby: Brave.

Sheila: What did you find out it would do? What does it do? (They discuss the hummingbird´s tendency to attack.) Okay, last paragraph. What did you find out?

Student: Most of its life is in the air.

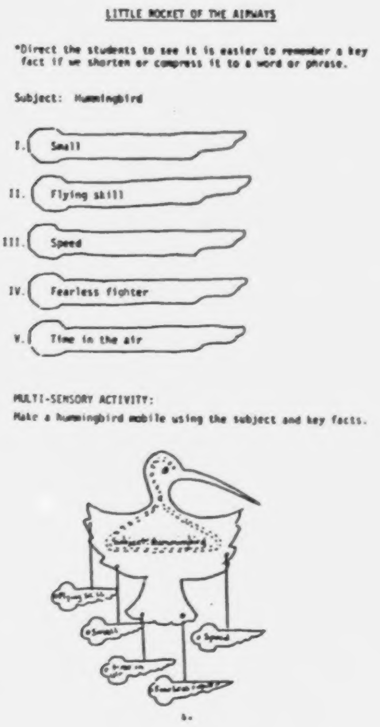
Sheila: Okay, most of its life is in the air...

Jason: I´ve never seen a hummingbird before.

Sheila: Have you seen one, Jeff? Tell us about it. (Jeff describes having seen one and tells that they like to get stuff from flowers. Sheila paraphrases what he has said.)

Sheila: Now, this is a kind of fun thing we can do with this. (Passes out a ditto - see Figure 1)

Figure 1. Hummingbird ditto.



LITTLE ROCKET OF THE AIRWAYS

*Direct the students to see it is easier to remember a key fact if we shorten or compress it to a word or phrase.

Subject: Hummingbird

I. Small
II. Flying skill
III. Speed
IV. Fearless fighter
V. Time in the air

MULTI-SENSORY ACTIVITY:
Make a hummingbird mobile using the subject and key facts.

Now look at it with me. (She relates the ´keys´ on the ditto to those on the overhead she´s been writing and they´ve been copying on the back of their first ditto.)

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

> This is a fun thing you can do. You can make the hummingbird out of cardboard and hang the keys down and I´ll give you extra credit for it.

Stepping Back

Sheila focuses the word as the primary language unit. Each of the reading selections is approached in the same methodical fashion, with students counting paragraphs, defining vocabulary words and locating key words and facts. Reading is never presented as an enjoyable experience, or as a tool for learning but instead is seen as a skill which must be mastered to survive schooling.

Despite the fact that Sheila seems very concerned about her students and their futures, no attempt is made to provide them with experiences that are meaningful and valuable outside the classroom. Her criteria for materials does not include relevancy to the students´ ages or interests and is far removed from any conception of reading and writing as tools for learning We could not help but wonder what it must have felt like to these 13 to 16 year olds to be reading about Santa Claus and to have to cut out hummingbirds to earn extra credit.

In our interview, Sheila noted, "Lots of times, if kids don´t get skills (in regular classrooms), the teachers don´t stop. The kids get lost. In LD, we give kids practice...dittoes and drill sheets to make sure they have it."

Sheila trusts a variety of experts and uses an assortment of skill-based readers with her students. And, she has set herself up as the single knowledge source in the classroom. Students must check with her before proceding to the next in their series of seat work assignments. Nowhere in her classroom has she provided an opportunity for her students to operate as independent thinkers. For example, she tells Russ his things have fallen on the floor, reminds both Steve and Russ to sit up, points to Shawn´s paragraphs for him. In this way, she prevents the students from taking any responsibility for themselves, academically or socially.

Sheila conceptualizes effective literacy activities as closed activities which have pre-determined right answers which she, armed with the teacher´s manual, can give to the students. In Sheila´s classroom, all assignments are graded and there is frequent reference to grade equivalent scores provided in the instructional materials. However, Sheila tries hard to find ways to show kids that their answers are at least somewhat correct. When asked why she feels this is important, she tells us, "Positive reinforcement is very important to them...I try to stay away from negative reinforcement. I give positive reinforcement ALL THE TIME." So, although there is only one right answer, in

Sheila´s classroom being wrong is not the negative experience that it is in Pam´s room.

Like Pam, Sheila´s beliefs, and thus her curriculum, fall to the left on the continuums. In both classrooms, reading is a series of subskills, activities are closed and publisher-determined, and choice is notably missing. Instead of having the opportunity to explore and expand their potentials as individuals, students are subjected to depressed curricula. These curricula attempt to force them into a pre-cast mold, the intent of which is to create students whose performances are identical.

Joan
Junior High LD
English class

In this suburban school district, Junior High students who are labeled learning disabled receive their math, English and study skills instruction from a learning disabilities teacher. There are three such teachers in the building and the students move from class to class as do their non-labeled peers. They are grouped by reading level rather than grade level. Thus, each English class has seventh, eighth and ninth graders. Joan teaches English to the lowest reading group first period and to the highest reading group second period. The fieldnotes below are from the first period class.

> Joan begins, "So far this week we´ve covered three sounds - let´s see if you can remember them." She puts sh on the board. The kids make the /sh/ sound. Joan comments to one student that he should put his lips together to say that sound. She demonstrates. She then puts ch on the board and the kids make that sound. Next comes wh. Joan tells them that when they say that sound they should put their hands in front of their mouths and feel the wind. The students do this. She then tells them that today´s words have a /wh/ somewhere in them and that the words also have one of the three vowels they have studied so far this year - a, i and o. (When Joan returns the field notes to us with feedback, she has added, "All short sounds only"). Next, she says "whip" and gives a sentence for the word. The students are supposed to write the word. She walks around observing the students as they write. To one student she says, "You left out a letter. This is a digraph. The two letters must be together."
>
> This pattern continues for all ten words. The second word is "whiff" and Joan asks the kids, "What do we know about the f at the end of a short vowel word?" One student says /cuh/?, another offers something that we do not hear; the third says, "Double?". Joan

responds, "Yes, that´s right, Mike, Good."

When she gives the word whack, she says, "What do you remember about the k at the end?" One student says, "It´s c, k" and Joan responds, "Great! You guys have learned a lot this year!"

Joan then gives sentences for the students to write. The first one is "Which ship is big?" She gives the sentence and then says, "What´s the mark at the end?" A student responds, "A question mark" and Joan says, "Right - because my voice went up." She then says, "We had ship earlier - remember? What does that start with?" This pattern continues for several minutes. When Joan comes to the word whip, one of the students offers a sentence. Joan responds to this by telling the student that that sentence can not be used because "...we have to use only the sounds we have learned this year." She then gives the sentence, "This thing will whip you."

As the students write, Joan walks around and comments, "Perfect. Good, Don´t forget what kind of mark you have at the end."

The books are then collected and put in a pile. (Joan adds to the field notes: "I take a daily grade on their work so they realize I believe it is very important.")

Students move around the room. They are getting ready to do independent work. Two students take a seat along the hallway wall and get books, a tape recorder and headphones. Two students sit at the table in the back where the we are sitting. Joan joins that group. These kids have workbooks and the page they are on starts with lists of phrases. Joan announces that these two are the highest readers in the room. She says that they are "really pros."

The students then take turns reading to Joan the phrases: SWITCH ON AND OFF, TV COMMERCIAL, FEEL HER STARING AT ME. One student does much better than the other and often answers out of turn. One of the phrases has the word scalps in it. The ´better´ student has trouble with it.

Joan: What does the sc say? What does the a say?

Student: /ss-kuh-ay.../

Joan: Sound it out.

Student: /ss-kuh-ay-al-puh-z/

Joan: Scalps.

The next phrase has the word exist in it and Joan says to the other student, "Let me break this up for you." She shows him that the word divides between ex and ist.

Student 2: /ex-it/

Joan: Exist

She then points to the next phrase and says, "Even in the next class, students confuse this word. When a c has an e or an i after it, it has a soft sound."

Student #1: /kay...ser...ser-tayn-ly/

Joan: Phonetically that´s how you´d sound it out, but this says ´certainly´.

The next part of the workbook pages asks the kids to write down the compound words that appeared in a list. Joan reads them the directions and then says, "Can you find them? Write them down."

The next section gives a phonics rule. Joan turns to one of the students and says, "I did cover this last year, Charles, so this isn´t new to you." To the both of them, she commments, "You two are ready for this rule, but the other guys in the class are not." She then reads the rule from the book. The rule explains that when a word ends in an e and is preceded by a vowel and a consonant, the e is silent and the vowel is long.

This rule is followed by a list of three letter combinations. The students are to add an e to each combination and see if it makes a word. If it does not make a word, they X out the number of the non-word. She asks the two if they want to do it on their own and they nod yes. She tells the ´better´ student that she trusts him to go ahead. He then picks up some reading material that is on the table and starts to read. She takes it away (explaining to us later that she tries to keep some interesting stuff around for them to read IF they get their work done early.) He goes back to his workbook assignment. He sits across the table from us.

While he is working, she turns to us and explains that he has Tourette´s Syndrome and that he has been moved here from the emotionally disturbed class. She tells us that he takes medication and does fine on his medication. She smiles as she reaches over to him and says, "We can tell when he hasn´t taken his medicine."

Meanwhile, the other students have been busy at the other table. Joan tells us that they are listening to words and doing workbook pages. We see one of the pages; it has three sections: Remembering Small Things, What Happens Next and Read It Again. Joan explains that she puts on tape the directions that are in dark print in the workbook and then adds extra directions so that the students can do the pages independently.

One of the students who has been doing this independent work is now called over to work with Joan. He has a list of words on a ditto. Next to the typed word on the page, he has hand written the word twice. Joan explains that on the tape that she has made for him to listen to, Joan says the word, then says it again more slowly. Then he writes the word the first time. She then says it more rapidly and he writes it a second time. (We have apparently misunderstood because later Joan crosses out what we have written and puts, "He writes as the tape says it slowly to connect the tactile, visual and auditory inputs. After he does the whole list, then the tape says each word and he is not to write. He is instructed to say the word with me on the tape.")

At the table, he now reads this list to her. She listens and provides any words he has trouble with. She tells us that these words come from a series called Caught Reading (Quercus Corporation) and that she likes it because it is multi-sensory. Next to each word are three boxes. The directions above the boxes say, "Look, say, picture, write." She tells us that she trusts this student to do all the steps so he is allowed to work independently, with only the tape providing the structure. After he has read all the words, approximately 25, she says, "Okay, let´s read the story." The story, we notice, contains only the words that have been presented on the tapes. Joan explains that she also likes the series because it assumes that the kids initially do not know any words.

The student begins to read. He reads haltingly, word for word. When he miscues, she corrects his error. For example, he read ON and she says, "Not on, no." At one point, the student reads TURNING for taking and Joan says, "Not turning." The student responds TALKING and Joan says, "Not talking." She tells him that the word looks like talk and that he learned it on the same list. He says TALK and she says, "Not talk, take.

Stepping Back

Joan´s classroom has much in common with Pam and Sheila´s. She views reading comprehension as a series of subskills and she puts a strong emphasis on phonics and vocabulary. As Joan noted, "Comprehension is 43% vocabulary." She told us that if she could operate her ideal program, she "wouldn´t deal with comprehension at all - maybe not for two years." She would spend that time on "phonetics and structural analysis...I do a lot of basic reading...I tell the kids, ´This letter says /ahh/, now sound it out´...I have lots of little steps before I use words." Joan´s emphasis on oral performance and lower order subskills is clearly conveyed to her students and, it appears to divert their attention away from reading as a meaning making process.

Joan is also predominately dependent upon experts. When asked for the source of her information about the percentage of comprehension that was vocabulary, she cited a former college professor. She told us that she gets a lot of her ideas from the Orton Society workshops she attends and said that, because of this influence, she was going to start teaching main idea - something she never did before because she thought it was too hard. Based on an Orton model she learned about last summer, she is going to spend about two weeks teaching main idea in pictures and then move to sentences. The idea is to make abstract concepts more concrete.

Like her colleagues Pam and Sheila, Joan assumes responsibility for monitoring student progress by encouraging the students to depend on her rather than rely on themselves. Although she frequently talks of ´trusting´ them, the ´trust´ to which she alludes is, at best, superficial. Her faith in her students as learners does not extend beyond a confidence in their ability to carry out an agenda she has prepared. The students expect her to know all the answers and, indeed, for Joan to do most of the thinking and problem solving. She has set herself up as the director of all learning and, as can be seen in the episode with the tape-recorded directions, exerts an enormous amount of control over the students even when she is not physically present.

In addition, activities in Joan´s room have overtly closed entries and exits. Everything is graded, and if one is not ´right´, one is penalized. Joan tells the students what they are ready for and then provides what she considers to be appropriate materials for each student. Criterion levels are provided for nearly every activity. For example, in order to read the novel that is provided with the Caught Reading series, the words that are in the book are provided on flash cards and the students must read every card correctly before they are allowed to read the book. The IEP´s reflect these criterion levels: "The student will read from Caught Reading with 97% accuracy...The student will answer comprehension exercises with 80% accuracy."

While similiarities exist among all three teachers in terms of their views of reading comprehension and on what knowledge is valued, Joan differs from Pam and Sheila in that she is beginning to reflect on her experiences and seems willing to consider using her personal insights to modify curriculum. For example, she recently decided to teach vocabulary after the kids had read a selection, rather than before, as she has done in the past. She explained to us that she had been thinking about her own learning and realized that she didn´t look up all the words before she read, so...she thought she might try it that way with the kids. She noted, however, that if it didn´t work she could always go back to introducting vocabulary first.

This move away from expert dependency suggests the beginning of professional growth and the potential for Joan to recognize and eventually trust herself as a learner. From our perspective, her students would have much to gain. We are hopeful that these quality observations will continue, for we believe they will propel Joan beyond her teacher-centered, meaning-free curriculum towards a curriculum which supports learning as a meaning-making, naturally occuring event.

Kate
Elementary LD
Resource Room

Kate Parker provides reading and langauge arts instruction for 32 second through sixth grade children who have been labeled learning disabled. Included in this population are four children who are considered to be "gifted." When asked about her approach to instruction, Kate describes V.A.K.T., which requires children to use "four modes of learning...visual(V), auditory(A), kinesthetic(K) and tactile(T)." We begin to understand how she implements V.A.K.T. using Houghton-Mifflin, the district adopted text, the first time we observe her working with a reading group.

> 9:00 Kate is meeting with a small group in the front corner of the room. "Eyes up here. Anybody...hello?" She reads through a word list that she has written on the board. "Duties, bear, drive, duty, now look here. This is one," she says, pointing to duty," and here´s a whole bunch," pointing to duties and other plural words on the list. She explains that each of these words has multiple meanings.
>
> "Slates ready?" Each of the kids has a small

chalkboard, chalk, and access to an eraser. "You will hear me go through the words twice. Find the word that means ´to get in the car and go to gramma´s house.´" Once each of the kids has written something, Kate informs them that the answer is drove. She walks around the table and checks what the kids have written: "Yes...Yes...Yes.."

"Erase."

As she reads a new sentence to the group, she notices that one of the kids across the room appears to be doing work on another student´s paper. "Do not do the paper for her. Get her to understand it!"

Kate walks around the table, checking answers to the last question. One of the kids has missed it. "I was going to write that down, but I didn´t think it was right," he tells her...

...Kate monitors the behavior of some of the others in the room. "Russ, sit down. Steven Framer, take your sun glasses off and put them in your desk. Take your hood off, get going on your work."

Turning back to the group at the table, Kate describes a new word. "One of your favorite teachers has it...Daniel has it...Joey sometimes has it...It means when I am being humorous and..."

This procedure continues until the group has reviewed all of the words. Then Kate has them generate new sentences for both meanings of each of the words. When they have finished, she informs the kids that they will be having a quiz after vacation. "Who´s going to have time over vacation to read "A Racoon to Remember"? It´s kind of cute..." The kids groan at first but then agree to read the story.

9:10 Margie has done something to attract Kate´s attention. "Margie, what´s the matter?" No answer, but the question prompts Margie to begin working. Kate stops by where we are sitting, which is a few feet from the end of the reading table, to explain that this group is working from Houghton-Mifflin, the school´s adopted text. The series has skill cards which are completed by kids and are computer scored. The print out not only reflects a child´s score, but stars the skills which must be retaught.

9:15 "Margie - at your desk, Tom - at your desk, Joey - at your desk."

"With LD kids", she says to us, "you must follow through."

Now she shows us the assignments sheets that she uses with kids to help them organize their work. When they´re not in group, kids are at their desks working on either reading, spelling, math, language, or auditory skills - all of which she feels are related to their reading and LD deficits. In addition, she has also set up four learning stations for skill reinforcement.

There are two different assignment sheets, one for older children and a simplified version for younger children. She says that the sheets help them to achieve closure on assignments, to use time limits (a problem for many) and serves as a "memory jogger", helping kids to remember what to take home, what to do, and what to bring back.

9:19 John has completed his work. "John Charmin, depart in peace." John leaves.

A new group is at the table. They take their seats and begin working independently. Margie begins reading aloud to Kate.

Nearby, two of the other boys seem to be having a conflict of some sort. "Do you two need to go way over there to solve this problem you seem to be having today?" The boys look at each other...they seem to handle the situation...

...Kate turns to us and explains that there are "quiet corners that they can choose to go to or be sent to." She then describes the kids at the table as "a severe motor problem and two language deficits."

9:22 Brian arrives from another room. "Hello, I´m waiting", she informs the group. "Can you read this to me?"

Tory is sitting at his desk and Kate asks him if she can borrow him for a minute. She wants him to assist her by reading something for Tom, who is taking a test.

While all this is happening, Margie continues reading aloud to Kate. During this group time, so many different interactions are concurrently ongoing that it is impossible to capture them all. Kate seems to share her attention with all of the students simultaneously, and kids ask questions or make comments without regard for what she may be doing or saying to the others.

Margie has read something incorrectly. "What´s wrong with that?" Kate asks her. She doesn´t wait for her response, but says something to Brad instead.

Margie: S.

Kate: Yes.

The boy sitting directly across from Margie is reading his flash cards aloud for Kate. Margie stops reading. Another student talks with Tom but Kate informs him that Tom is taking a final - - "Do not bother them."

Kate now redirects her attention to Margie, pointing to the words for her as she reads. As she does this, she identifies one of Alans´ words as ´new´ and instructs him to "go type it three times and tell me what it is."

Kate looks around the room. "Dennis, you´d better check in with me soon." She looks down at the page on which Margie is reading, and talks with her about having read SPACEMEN for spaceman, elaborating upon the difference between the two.

Kate is now looking at Brad. Alan returns with a slip of paper in his hand. "What is the word?" Kate is still looking at Brad and I assume she is talking to him, but he does not answer. She repeats her question, "What is the word?", finally looking at Alan, to whom the question has been directed. He reads from the paper on which he has typed .

This pace continues with there being many times when all three students are talking at the same time while Kate divides her attention and they wait for answers to questions before continuing.

9:29 "What do you need Dennis?" and, to another, before Dennis answers, "Tell me about the two ways to use there." While Dennnis is answering, another student asks if he gets an A+ now. Kate nods that he does and he announces, "I got an A+". Someone else informs Kate that he is finished. The boy who just received an nomination for his good work hands a similar nomination to Kate. "This is for me?", she asks. She informs us that sometimes the kids nominate her for "V.I.P." as well.

9:31 Two students come into the room and then leave with Brad. Kate asks Alan to read a story that he has written to us, telling us "Alan writes neat stories."

Alan seems uncomfortable with the idea of reading to us and Kate suggests that he practice reading first.

Another student comes up to the table with something for Kate to look at. "I´ll see it later. I´m really busy now okay?"

Kate looks our way saying, "Sometimes it gets kind of crazy." In the same breath, she compliments the kids, "They know how to wait..and they are patient."

Alex comes to the table and is awarded a ´Pac Man Pass´ for having returned his green sheets 15 times.

David comes to her with a paper in his hand. "What happens if you forget to do it in cursive?" she asks him. "Redo it", he answers, and we are later told that this must be done ´on his own time.´

Kate reminds the kids at the table that they will be having a ´reward movie´ tomorrow. "I need some ears...I need some ears. When you are ready, I´ll go on." Kate informs the kids that they will be allowed to bring a can of pop or juice and one snack to the movie.

9:42 David has completed an assignment amd writes his name on the board for something. When asked about it, he tells us that he has just signed up for computer time.

Kate turns to us to explain that each of the kids at the table is working on a different workbook. She glances at Margie´s. "No t in this word, Madame." Now Alan returns, having finished working on this story. "Goodbye," she says, signaling that he may leave the table. However, he is eager to share what he has been working on, "Read it, read it, read it!"...

9:45 A group of kids leaves the room and, on their way out the door, one of the girls stops by the reading table and hands Kate two dandelions. Kate continues interacting with those at the table. Several minutes after the student has left, Kate responds to the gesture, "Dandelions, thank you."

Stepping Back

When asked about her approach to reading instruction, Kate described it as "sight memory in association with phonics." She also noted that she relies predominately on herself as curricular decision maker: "I read everything I can get my hands on." By drawing from each of the readings ideas which she finds useful, and by combining this information with what she has learned through experience, she creates what she kiddingly refers to as "Parkerisms" - her guidelines for effective instruction. "A learning disabled child is a child who can be taught, but who learns differently." What this means to Kate is that, "The teacher must adjust the teaching to the child. It is the kid who is intelligent, but the teaching fails somehow and he can´t deliver the goods." It is this belief that undergirds Kate´s decision to individualize instruction.

Her challenge to the experts, then, is issued not to the ´what´ of their curriculum, but to their ´how.´ That is, it is not the objectives that she questions, but the way it is recommended that they be taught. She therefore, in a very important sense, remains expert dependent.

Because she believes that instruction which is individualized best meets the needs of students, Kate invests a great deal of time and energy responding to each student. Consider, for instance, the scenerio at the reading table. Kate is not willing to let the instruction come to a halt when she in unavailable to assist the children. She therefore relies on them to help one another. Much to her surprise, the social support that has developed among peers has done much to foster a genuine cohesiveness among group members. "There´s a caring for each other," she explains.

There are additional benefits for those children who are able to help: they feel good about themselves. "The kids who help sort of wiggle their tails," she laughs. And sometimes, when she "can´t get through to the kids, other kids help to explain...It´s so neat...Oh, it makes me shiver!"

It is clear from these comments and our observations that Kate´s curriculum is based on her beliefs. She reads a variety of professional journals, uses her students as informants and, indeed, felt that our presence in the room resulted in further self-reflection. However, it is also apparent that Kate´s reflections upon her curriculum are somewhat superficial in that she fails to examine the beliefs about learning that undergird the publisher´s materials.

Mary
Elementary MiMH
Self-contained

In this district, students labeled Mildly Mentally Handicaped recieve their instruction in a self contained classroom. Mary teaches the intermediate level class. There are fifteen students in the class and Mary feels that it is most important that students understand that reading is language written down. She has been provided with Sullivan programmed materials but explains that "´Cat sat on the hat´ is not very good material for teaching comprehension of ´real life´ language." She therefore supplements her reading program with a variety of materials. She explains that she went to to central office and got several regular readers for the kids. She also makes regular visits to the library and keeps a large supply of books on hand. Mary reads to the children every day and also provides time for silent sustained reading each morning.

After the silent reading time, Mary reviews with the students their assignments for the morning. Each student is given worksheets that they are to complete while Mary is working with reading groups. Mary explains to us that she does not want these kids to experience failure so always makes sure that all the kids can do the worksheets provided. The scenerio that follows is fairly typical of what happens when Mary ´goes over´ a worksheet.

> Mary has given out a worksheets that contains pictures of objects. Each picture is set off in a box and has space underneath the drawing for the student to write in the name of the drawing. Mary tells the students that some of the pictures may be hard to identify and so she wants to go over the pictures with them. She asks, "What is the first picture?" and almost all of the fifteen children put their hands in the air. Mary calls on one student who correctly identifies the picture. This pattern continues until all the pictures have been discussed. Mary makes positive comments throughout this process and most of the kids appear to be beaming with pride that they have done so well.
>
> Mary then explains that the students will have to put the name of the object under the picture and she asks for someone to spell the same of the first object.
>
> M: Robe. How do you spell ´robe´? (Many hands are in the air. Mary calls on one student).
>
> S-1: R-o-d-e
>
> M: (gently laughing) We want /ir-o-buh/. You´ve got /ir-o-duh/.
>
> (S-1 smiles and shrugs. Several hands are still in the air. The kids are involved and enthusiastic. It seems as if they are playing a favorite game instead of going over a worksheet.)
>
> S-2: R-o
>
> M: R-o. Good.

> S-3: R-o-b
>
> M: Good. R-o-b what?
>
> S-4: e
>
> M: R-o-b-e. Robe. Good.
>
> Mary then reminds the students about the silent e rule and says, "We just have to work and work so we can figure out when to use which rule."

Mary continues to go over all the worksheets in this fashion. The kids laugh with pleasure when they have gotten the right answer. Mary makes sure that everyone understands what they are to do and then moves to a side table and calls the reading groups over, one at a time.

Mary begins each of the reading groups with an activity that these kids seem to consider fun. The first group works on a puzzle. It is a beach scene and shows several kinds of objects that could be found on a beach - shell, canoe, shovel, chair, pail etc. Under each picture is a word naming the thing shown. Both the item and the word are puzzle pieces. Mary has the kids read these words and occasionally points to the picture to help the student get the word. After all the words have been read in this fashion, Mary dumps the words out and tells the two boys to mix up the words. They do and divide the words between them. They then try to read the word and put it in the puzzle where it goes. Both boys seem excited and often yell out the word they have ("I´ve got pail!) as they put their word under the picture of the item.

When all the words have been placed, Mary tells them - "Let´s check it and see how we did." The kids seem eager to check their work; when they find out they have gotten them all right, they clap their hands.

Mary incorporates a charade activity in the third group. (This appears to interest everyone and the rest of the class, who have been silently working at their seats, turn away from their work to watch.) Mary whispers a word to a student and the student acts it out. The one who guesses correctly writes the word on the board and then gets to do the next word. When someone has difficulty with the spelling, Mary asks the rest of the reading group, "Who thinks they can help?" Together the kids generate the conventional spelling.

When all of the kids have had a turn they tell Mary it is her turn and with much laughter she acts out spill. The kids seem to be having a great time.

Each group then spends time on learning new words and on reading comprehension. For example, Mary tells the first reading group that today they have a new word.

> She writes h on the board and says, "You know the sound of h - /huh/ and then writes a and the kids say /ay/ and then writes m and asks the kids what that says. The kids smile as they hum /mmm/?.
>
> Mary: That´s right! Now, put them together!
>
> Mary and the kids (together): "Ham!"
>
> Mary: "What is ham? "Where does it come from?" "Have you ever had it?"
>
> During the lively discussion that follows, one of the students mentions "kay-whys".
>
> Mary: "Kay-whys"?
>
> Student: They come from a pig, from pig guts. They are great!
>
> Several other students in the class chime in :
>
> Boy: My grandmother boils them!
>
> Girl: My mother fries them up.
>
> Another boy: They are de-lic-cious!

This discussion continues as the students explain about what is apparently a cultural phenonema - only the black students report knowing about kay-whys.

In another group, Mary puts new words on the board and has the kids read the words.

> The first word is flag and Mary asks Ted to draw it. Brad, who has been noticably quiet, points to the flag that is hanging in the room and says "Draw that?" His tone suggests the impossibility of such a task.
>
> Mary: Yes, like that, but Ted can draw a simple flag. (Ted does so.)
>
> The next word is flap and Mary leads a discussion about what a flag would do when it flapped. Brad doesn´t join the conversation verbally but moves his hand the way a flag would flap.

Mary: (noticing Brad´s hand movement) Yes - that is what a flag would do. Right.

Brad: ...(inaudible)...It hits the bar thing.

Mary: Yes. It hits the flag pole.

Reading comprehension consists of discussing the stories read silently as well as working as a group on the Sullivan workbooks. As they discuss the morning´s story, Mary asks questions both on the literal and inferential level: Who was sick? Who came to visit? How would you feel if you were sick and someone came in singing? All of the kids are involved in the discussion and often all hands are raised at once - and, sometimes a question is answered by all simultaneously. In one group, we noticed a student who seemed reluctant to participate. Mary often elicited his response so that he contributed as often as did the others.

When the group is taking turns reading from the Sullivan workbook, Mary elaborates often - commenting on the size of this or that or the silliness of an answer. For example, one line reads "This hat fits Ann. Yes. No" Mary talks about how big the hat is for Ann and how far it would fall down her face. The kids laugh at the idea of Ann´s hat falling down her face.

Each group ends with Mary distributing a worksheet for the students to take back to their desks.

Stepping Back

Mary believes that phonics and vocabulary are a part of teaching reading comprehension. To this end, she reads to the children, provides free reading time and uses language experience activities. Reading is meaning-making and Mary works hard to see that these low-ability kids who usually experience much school failure and frustration, find reading and learning to read fun and enjoyable. She wants them to see that there are fun things to read and that they could be reading those things themselves. Discussions about reading passages are thus tailored to the interests and understandings of her students. Additionally, the passages require the children to draw upon prior experiences and enable them to bring this information to bear in making predictions about the author´s meaning. Mary notes that her primary purpose is to help them understand that reading is language written down and feels that reading to them, talking, and writing stories with them helps to communicate that.

Mary relies on herself, rather than on others as the expert. She credits her experiences as a first grade ´regular education´ teacher as having helped her to understand the needs of special education kids. She noted that in that classroom, there were "some kids that just needed special help." She does not think that she teaches special education any differently than regular education, except that with the special education kids she notes, "You have to work harder on transfer." She adds that she thinks that some of her students are not mentally handicapped, but culturally deprived and so she works to broaden their experiences.

Mary´s attitude about relying on one´s self evidences itself in the way she handles the children. In Mary´s classroom, the kids are encouraged to figure out what they think is right and to support their opinions. Here everyone is right. Reading is Mary´s room is a social experience in which meaning is often socially negotiated. The section of the fieldnotes in which the children jointly construct the conventional spelling of the word robe serves as example as does the following excerpt from a reading group discusion about a story they have just read. Mary has asked what a pin man is, (in the story, he is like a pin cushion, only in the form of a man), and has shown the kids her pin cushion and allowed them to stick pins into it.

> Mary: Is the pin man real?
>
> Rob: NO! He would be dead with all those pins in him!
>
> Laura: YES! Down in ´Tucky, I knowed a pin man.
>
> Mary: What was he like?
>
> Laura: He was like the pin man in the book.
>
> Mary: Laura thinks that the pin man is real. What do the rest of you think?

The others provide arguments for why the pin man is not real. Mary asks if this story then is real or imaginary. The majority think it is imaginary and Laura concedes that it could be an imaginary story about a real pin man. One senses that Laura now is considering that the pin man may not be real, but is not yet ready to publicly change her mind. While meaning is socially negotiated, Laura is not penalized for holding a "minority opinion.

Mary´s definition of reading, her reliance on herself rather than on experts, the social nature of learning in her classroom and the way meaning is negotiated, put her to the right on all four continuums and so distinguish her from the other four teachers. She has set herself up as a learner alongside the children and as can be seen in the scenerio involving charades, the children recognize and enjoy her participation as a member of the classroom community.

Clearly, Mary has overcome one of the side-effects of having a history of school failure: her kids feel good about themselves as learners. However, Mary next needs to move beyond school literacy to real literacy. She needs to incorporate into her curriculum experiences that support literacy as a tool for ~~lifelong learning.~~

Sharon
Elementary LD
Resource

Sharon teaches learning disabled elementary level students in a small town (there couldn´t have been more than 50 houses) which is nearly two hours away from a metropolitan area. Her classroom is also small - the ten desks fill almost all of the available space.

Each morning nine students receive language arts instruction from Sharon. Five fifth graders leave their regular class and come to this room for ´Language´ from 8:30 - 9:30 and ´Reading´ from 9:30 - 10:30. Four other kids periodically come in and out of the room for individualized help with their classwork.

The first day we were in the room, Sharon asked the kids to introduce themselves. David spoke first. He told us his name, where he lived and what he liked. He talked comfortably for two or three minutes. Then other kids contributed information about David. One student said that David had won trophies for his horse back riding and showed me David´s picture on the bulletin board. Another student said that David was good at helping and Sharon added that David was the class geographer - he loved looking things up on the map or globe.

This pattern continued as the other kids and the teacher introduced themselves. It seemed that everyone had something interesting and positive to say about each of the others. There was a sense of these six people - five students and one teacher - working together. To give an example of how included Sharon was, when it was her turn to introduce herself, she did so and then the kids told us that Sharon and her husband were competition ballroom dancers. They told where she competed, when and what she had won etc.

After introductions (which had included the research team as well), Sharon moved into ´Language´. She told the students that she had a homograph worksheet for them to do and that she wanted them to pretend that she wasn´t there. They were to work together to figure out what needed to be done. Each of the five began working independently but soon moved to working with each other. Meanwhile, Sharon worked with a younger student who had come into the room for help. After a few moments, she paused and addressed the fifth graders, asking who wanted to be the ´teacher´ and tell what the students had decided to do. David volunteered the group´s interpretation and, when he was finished, Sharon said, "Great. Now go ahead and finish." The fifth graders kids turned their attention to the worksheet and Sharon continued working with the individual student.

When she was finished, she discussed the worksheets with the others. One of the words on the homograph sheet was curry. Sharon said, "David knows what curry is" and indeed he did. David explained all about currying a horse. Sharon then asked what the students knew about another kind of curry and when no one knew, she explained about curry, the spice. She went on to say that she had an excellent receipe for curried chicken and that the next day, they would be making curried chicken in the room.

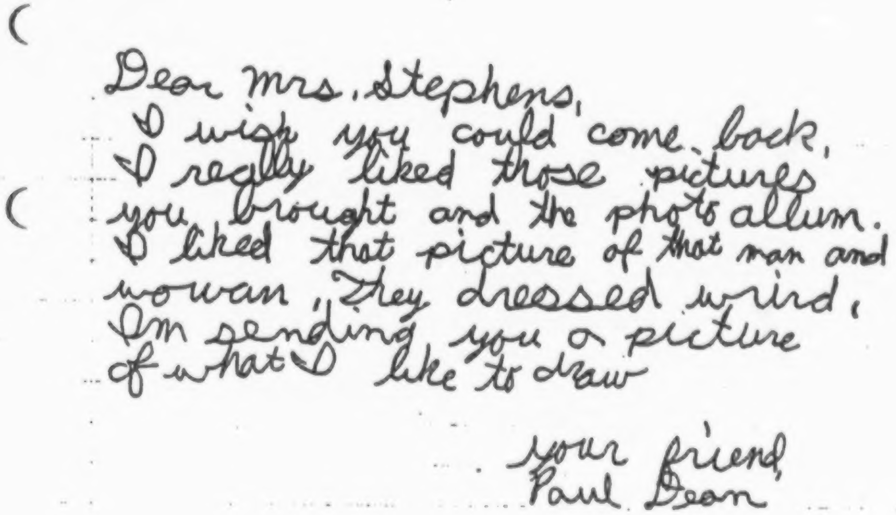
The students were given a few more minutes to finish up their worksheets and then ´Reading´ began. The story that the students were reading was about a little girl and her family who had been evicted from a tenement apartment. Every page generated a myriad of questions from the kids, such as "What´s a ground floor?, Why did the mother say that?, Where´s the yard?" Sharon addressed the questions by getting the students to generate possible answers and by using as many of the resources in the room as possible. Because we were in the room, we too became resources. During introductions, we had mentioned that we were both originally from New York. Because the story took place in New York City, when the kids wanted to know more about New York, Sharon refered them to us. This began a discussion of the difference between "THE city" (New York City) and the rest of New York State and of tenement living in major cities. The conversation now involved eight - five students, one teacher, two researchers.

To the students´ questions, Sharon added her own. When the text read, for example, that the reporter paused before hanging up the telephone, Sharon asked, "Why do you think the reporter did that?" As the kids were offering hypotheses, Mike asked another question, "Why don´t adults trust kids?" This lead to a discussion of why that might seem to be true with each kid offering experiences - both from their histories and from stories they had heard about their parents. Again, Sharon was a participant. She told of her experiences as a child with her parents.

Although there were many aspects of Sharon´s reading program, such as writing, that we were not able to observe, we were able to collect data on these aspects in a round about way. We had given copies of our elaborated field notes to the teachers for feedback and when the copy we had given Sharon was returned to us by mail, the package contained two suprises - one, each of the kids had written us a letter and two, one of the students had made a book. Apparently, Sharon had told the students that she was sending us some things and they asked if they could write or send something too.

This is Paul´s letter and Paul´s picture.

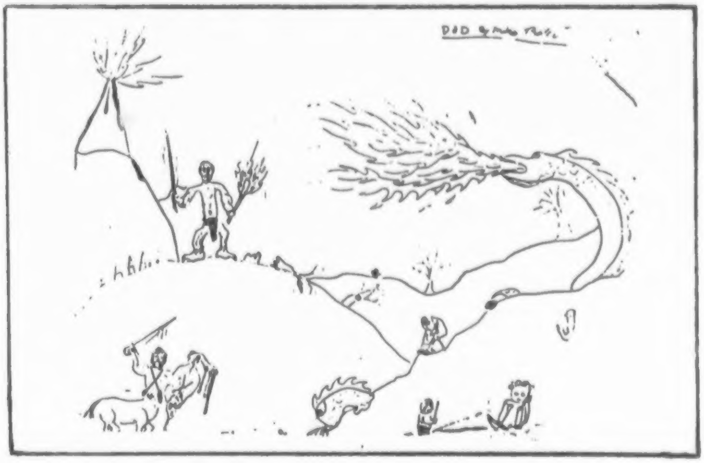
Figure 2.1. Paul´s letter.



Dear mrs. Stephens,
I wish you could come back.
I really liked those pictures
you brought and the photo allum.
I liked that picture of that man and
wowan, They dressed wird,
Im sending you a picture
of what I like to draw

your friend,
Paul Dean

Figure 2.2. Paul´s picture.

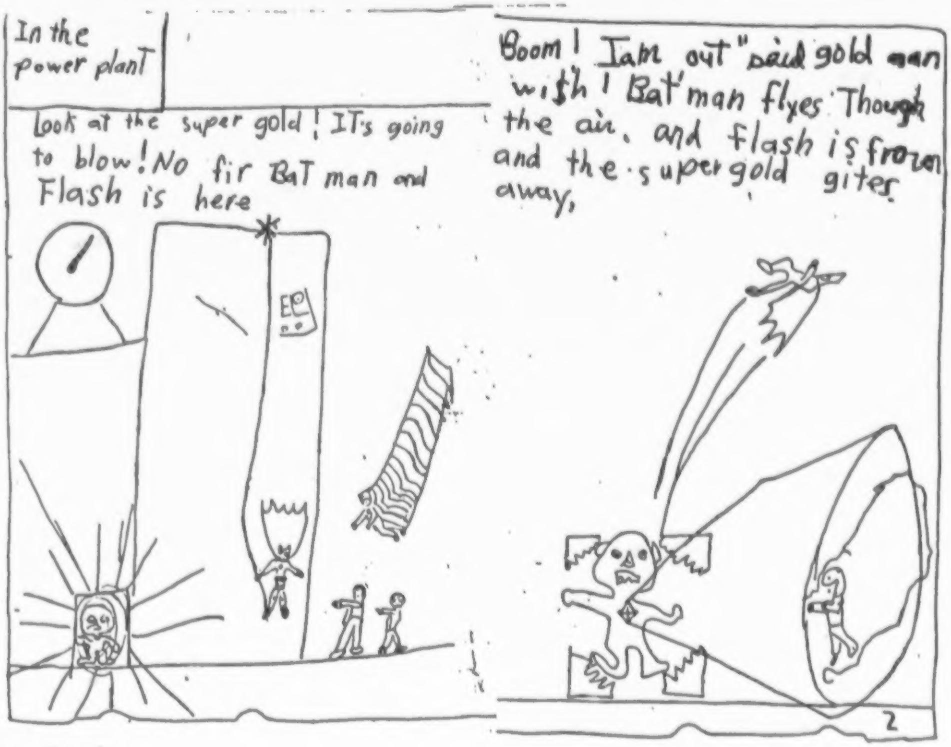


(The pictures to which Paul refers are ones which Diane had brought to share after having told the group that her grandparents had met in New York City.)

Although each letter was unique, every letter except David´s contained a drawing. David had instead included the picture of himself that had been on the bulletin board.

These are the first two pages from the book Kenny was making for us.

Figure 3. Kenny´s book.


In the power plant
look at the super gold! IT's going to blow! No fir BaT man and Flash is here
EC
Boom! Iam out" said gold man with! Bat man flyes Though the air. and flash is frozen and the supergold giter away,
2

Stepping Back

In contrast to the other teachers, Sharon believes that reading and writing are not only meaningful, but functional. Thus, she provides opportunities for the students to engage in activities that have a purpose beyond the experience of reading: the students write to pen pals (they each have three - all from different locales), make books both alone and as a group, research topics and prepare reports, read basal stories with the intent of gaining new understandings and follow and write receipes. To Sharon, and, in turn, to her students, reading is understanding. Sharon´s goal is for the students to be able to use reading and writing as tools for learning, not as ends in themselves. Reading and writing activities in the room are also used to help students understand more about themselves and about the world around them.

Sharon´s and Mary´s classrooms are alike in many ways. Like Mary, Sharon relies on herself, not on the experts. When we asked Sharon how she came to hold the view of reading that she does, she said that a lot of it came from common sense. She reported that her first course in learning disabilities forced her to think about how kids learn. Her reflection on the learning process has most influenced her teaching.

Activities in Sharon´s room do tend to be both more consistently open and more frequently social than in Mary´s room. Here are no skill prerequisities or criterion levels. Students work together to understand new information or reformulate old. No one is excluded. This policy includes both traditional and non-traditional activities. We noted above that the students were encouraged to work together on both understanding the story and on doing the worksheets. On another day, a third grader was in the room doing independent work when the fifth graders were taking their spelling test. He asked if he could take their test. Sharon said, "Sure." The student took the test and Sharon complimented him on how well he had done.

Classroom activities are open in another important way - meaning is communicated in a variety of sign systems. The students read, and write, and draw, and act and construct. They even make videos. This multimodal communication system expands the communication potential. Sharon makes it clear that she values alternate means of communication. We observed, for example, that one day the school had a visiting author who showed the students how she had created the characters for her texts. When the fifth graders returned from the presentation, Sharon asked them to show her how to draw the story characters. The students each drew an example for her on the board, explaining to Sharon as they drew: "Well, first you have to draw the head like this and then..." She valued this whole class meaning making event in the same way that she valued the way that Paul signified movement in his drawings (see Batman´s movement in Figure 3 above). On a daily basis, Sharon demonstrates that she values art as a means of communication by supporting the illustrations of texts and frequently providing learning opportunities which allow for meaning to be expressed in non-linguistic form.

It is also not possible to be wrong in Sharon´s classroom. In this way, her classroom is again similiar to Mary´s. Students are encouraged to offer hypotheses and rewarded for their efforts. Only by not trying could one ´fail´. Sharon communicates, both directly and indirectly, that what matters is that students think for themselves.

Sharon and Mary both use the students as informants. When Sharon found out, for example, that none of the students had had curried chicken, she included cooking curried chicken in her room. In this way, both teachers have added many activities to the program that would not otherwise have included.

We have mentioned that Sharon is distinguished from Mary and the other four teachers by her emphasis on the functional nature of reading and writing. She also differs in that she offers the kids choice. In the package of materials that she sent, for example, was a book of short stories that the kids had written. The stories were what we called "weird" - for example, one student wrote

> Once upon a time I was reading a book and it came to life. It ate my house and it ate the neighbors house. Then he ate the school. Then he ate the buses. He got so fat he busted in a thousand pieces.

Another student contributed this selection, entitled My Brother:

> My brother beats me up all of the time. He makes me cry every minute. One time he tried to run over me, but I jumped on his car and crushed it and I ripped the door off. I told him I will beat you up and now when I get home from school I beat him up.

To these stories, Sharon attached a note which read, "...These stories aren´t as good as they could be - actually they stink, but that´s what they wanted to do." What we found particularly interesting about these stories and about the letters and drawings that we received from the kids is that the students had chosen to write and that Sharon had valued their choices. Her willingness to share these with us is further evidence of her respect for children as capabable decision makers and as owners of their own learning.

As is evidenced in her instructional practice, Sharon´s beliefs place her consistently far to the right on all four continuums. Reading is functional and purposeful, with meaning consistently as its focus. Sharon adopts a position of support, assisting children in tapping background knowledge and in utilizing those knowledges to make sense of reading material in particular and of life in general. Risk-taking is encouraged and errors valued as constructive and useful. The social nature of this classroom enables all learners, including Sharon, to collaborate in order to achieve greater understanding than each could achieve as an individual. In short, Sharon´s classroom comes closest to what we would value as an effective literacy environment.

Toward a Theory of Usefulness

We started this paper by saying that we thought curriculum was theory driven, that what happened in the classroom was a function of teachers´ belief systems. We then visited, by way of our fieldnotes and thick descriptions, six classrooms and commented on how we thought theory was operationalized in those six rooms. Along the way, we commented, from our perspective, on the practices we observed.

We have noted that we would place ourselves on the far right on all four continuums. We believe that learning, and therefore reading and writing, exist as open-ended, social events outside the structure of formal schooling. We have observed that much learning occurs when individuals have the opportunity to take risks, test hypotheses and have the courage and support to be wrong. Indeed, our own experience as learners suggests that we have grown the most when we have had the opportunity to reflect on our mistakes. To be effective, currcilua should incorporate such real life experiences.

As classroom, teachers, there have been times when we have both relied on the experts. And yet, we have found our instructional practices to be most effective when, informed about what the experts believed but not dependent on their advice, we used ourselves and our children as informants. Legitimizing our insights benefitted both our students and ourselves.

In doing so, we have come to value usefulness as a criterion measure. That is, we evaluate what we do relative to its effectiveness in reaching our goals. In this closing section of the paper, we would like to suggest that, relative to the improvement of educational practice, it would be more effective for all of us, if research, practice and theory focused on usefulness as a criterion measure.

In order to do this, we must begin by establishing an environment that recognizes not just students, but teachers and students as learners. Such an environment encourages teachers to reflect upon both theory and practice, and to continue to test current hypotheses about language and language learning. Peers, supervisors and administrators support the teachers' right to take risks, learn from their mistakes and thus outgrow their former selves.

Then, within that environment, we must look beyond the educational objectives we so precisely mastered as undergraduates and determine what it is we want our students to ultimately achieve. Most of us, for example, agree that we would like our students to enjoy learning, to take pleasure in reading and writing and to feel confident enough as readers and writers to engage in lifelong learning.

Second, we have to examine our educational practices to determine their usefulness relative to these goals. Rowe (1985) points out that such an examination of practice requires a consideration of the entire classroom context. She argues that we need to look at all the messages given in the classroom. We must look beyond those espoused by the teacher and begin to examine the signs inherent in the type of task, the selection and use of materials, evaluation systems, time allocation, and reward procedures.

Once we understand what messages we think are being given in our classroom, we need to determine what messages are being received. Rowe suggests, for example, that when worksheets are always graded, students will come to believe that being a good reader is equivalent to doing well on worksheets. We need to explore this hypothesis and other possible interpretations with students. It is imperative that we find out what the students are thinking. We must respect our students as informants.

Fourth, we need to uncover the sources of those messages. Again, we must include students as informants. Together, we can work with students to understand the signs being generated and received within the classroom.

The last step also requires teacher-student cooperation. Teachers, once having understood the message system operating in their room, need to make changes so that their intended meaning is received. Students are integral to this process in that their insights can be used in the teacher's curricular reorganization and used again to verify that changes have indeed occurred and that the intended messages are being received.

This reflexive cycle of teacher-student investigation, modification and re-investigation is a much different approach to effective instruction than has been predominately advocated in the past. Then, what was argued was that researchers needed to do more research to find out what was effective. It was their responsibility to communicate these new truths to the classroom teacher. That method has proved fairly ineffective. We hope that by encouraging all of us, teachers and researchers together as educators, to reflect on our practice, to examine the messages in our contexts and to work with students to develop an environment that supports the learning that is intended, schooling can become an effective means for supporting the learning of all participants.

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Chapter 3

LITERACY:
WHAT MESSAGES ARE WE SENDING?

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INTRODUCTION

Literacy is a subject which as been widely discussed by the press, by politicians, and by educators during the last several years without much effort to explain exactly what it means. From the variation in these discussions, it is clear that literacy means many things. To educators like Elliot Eisner (1982), literacy means the ability to express meanings in a variety of communication systems including language, art, math, music, dance, and drama. However, in these days of "back to basics", consideration of these alternate literacies is less common in the public arena; for most people, literacy involves "the ability to read and write" (Guralnik, 1975, p. 352). Such a definition ties literacy to written language, but it does not really help to determine what the authors of reports such as *A Nation at Risk* (National Commision on Excellence in Education, 1983) mean when they report that 13% of U. S. teenagers are "functionally illiterate." What is it that these teenagers cannot do? Read road signs? Read *The Grapes of Wrath*? Fill out a check?

In this paper, I would like to argue that those involved in education need to begin to consider how literacy is defined in schools and to examine its relationship to literacy events outside of school. As Susan Sanders, a special education teacher put it, "We should examine our goals to see what kind of *people* we want these kids to become."

The need to examine what type of readers and writers we hope to produce extends to all areas of education. But it is particularly important in special education classrooms because students are often placed there primarily because they are thought to be `at risk' in the area of literacy development. In this context it is natural that concerned teachers are beginning to examine their instructional decisions to see how they can provide environments more conducive to literacy learning. Because special education students often have not demonstrated growth as readers and writers within traditional instructional programs, their teachers are looking for `special' techniques to use in special education classrooms. In the process, some of these teachers have begun to question the vision of literacy which is transmitted by the materials and activities which make up their curricula. Susan Sanders is one such teacher.

In this paper I first present a detailed description of Susan's resource room for students labeled learning disabled. To provide Susan with the opportunity to describe her approach to reading instruction, I have included portions of our conversations whenever possible. I have also included descriptions of group instruction and individual seat work activities which were typical of those I observed. My hope is that readers will come to see Susan as I did -- as a teacher who has overcome the practical constraints of large class size and widely varying age and ability levels to efficiently implement a skills-based reading program.

In a second section of this paper, I present Susan's reflections on her curriculum. As she talks about her reading program the irony of her position should become clear. Even though she has carefully implemented the `experts' suggestions, she has serious concerns about the types of literacy experiences students have in her classroom. Because her observations are insightful, and because I feel her position inside the classroom makes her comments much more powerful than any I could offer as an outsider, I will reserve my comments for a third section. It is here that I will take another step back to discuss, from my perspective as a researcher and teacher educator, the important issues Susan raises about literacy instruction. These issues include the need to reflexively examine curricula to determine what types of literacy students are experiencing, seeing demonstrated, and coming to value.

Before I continue, it is important that I acknowledge my own role in the creation of this classroom description. The methods used for gathering this information have had both limitations and strengths -- the first and most serious limitation being the short time covered by my observations. Though I spent more than 30 hours observing and talking with Susan, this is a relatively short period of time in terms of the ongoing history of instruction in her classroom. However, the brief period of engagement is offset, somewhat, by more than seven hours of conversations in which Susan and I talked about the practical and theoretical issues guiding her instruction. Informal interviews allowed me to check my understanding of classroom events and to pursue issues raised during the observations. As an additional check on my observations, Susan read and commented on typed copies of my field notes. In this way she was able to correct any statements she viewed as inaccurate, clarify points I was unsure of, and add other comments she thought important. In order to make clear my role in the construction of this description, I include the questions I asked to encourage Susan to reflect on her beliefs about literacy, her current instructional practices, and her wishes for change.

SUSAN'S CLASSROOM: A DESCRIPTION

Organizing for Instruction

Susan teaches 24 students labeled learning disabled in a elementary school resource room. Since her students come from grades one through six, she often has the same students in her class for several years, and this year is no exception. However, this semester an important factor affecting her program is the large number of students who are in her class at one time. Because language arts instruction occurs at a uniform time throughout the school, most of her 24 students come to the resource room for two or more hours of language arts instruction every morning.

There are two major types of activities in Susan's room: small group teacher-directed lessons and independent seat work. At the beginning of the year she administers an individual reading inventory which she uses to assign students to reading groups. This year there are eight different groups. Though there are some exceptions, the same students are usually also members of a `Language' group. In these language groups, Susan teaches lessons from an English grammar text and workbook. Some of these students also work with the teacher assistant in a Math group. Reading, Language, and Math groups meet Monday through Thursday. On Wednesdays, Susan also works with of the youngest students to write sentences with their spelling words. Friday is the day everyone takes spelling tests and catches up on uncompleted assignments. Since groups usually last about 20 minutes, students work with Susan or her assistant a maximum of forty minutes each morning.

The remainder of students' time in the resource room is spent in individually assigned, monitored, and evaluated seat work. For the most part, this work consists of various types of worksheets, workbook pages, and spelling assignments. Workbooks and ditto sheets come from the same Reading, English, Spelling, Handwriting, and Math series used in the regular classrooms, as well as from other sets of materials Susan uses to provide additional practice in language arts skills. Spelling assignments take quite a bit of time each day as students are asked on Monday and Tuesday to write the week's words three times; on Wednesday, to write a sentence with each word -- either independently or in a teacher-directed group; on Thursday, to write the words five times, and on Friday, to write each word three times before taking a spelling test. As Susan described her program to me, she commented that she feels her students are doing too many dittos, but that this is necessary with a class of 24 students.

Susan has approached the task of organizing this class of students with widely varying ages and ability levels by developing an efficient management system which helps students know what they are to be doing at all times. Each student has a contract on which the teachers write seat work assignments, including workbooks pages, ditto sheets, and tasks in various supplementary sets of materials. Students have a second sheet on which they are supposed to record any seat work assignments given during their groups. They have a third contract for interest centers. These interest centers include a variety of attractive teacher-made games, as well as books recorded on tape, and booklets made from old basal readers. These games and booklets are color coded by reading and ability level so Susan can indicate on the center contract which ones students may attempt. During my observations, students sometimes used the basal booklets but rarely went to the other centers. When I inquired about this, Susan commented that this year's group of students had not been getting to the centers very much because she requires them to complete their other work first. She thinks they may not be finishing in time because they have more `down time' as they wait for help at their seats. With so many students she cannot answer their questions as quickly as in past years.

This instructional management system requires a considerable amount of teacher time and reveals a great deal of organizational skill on Susan's part. Since students are given extra seat work assignments to provide practice in areas of weakness as indicated by the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills (Brigance, 1977) and by their performance on daily assignments, each contract reflects an individualized instructional program. Each morning when I arrived in the room, students' contracts were already filled out, the appropriate worksheets were on their desks, and comments had been made on worksheets which needed to be redone or revised. Susan told me that she and her aide usually spend part of each afternoon grading the day's work, recording the grades, and organizing for the next day's individual and group instruction. Keeping track of the status of students' work is an important part of the management system, as students receive `free time passes' as rewards for completing their daily assignments. These passes may be exchanged for five minutes of self-selected activity, such as computer games or art.

Throughout the morning students work at their seats until their group is called to the teacher's table. At the end of each group, Susan moves out into the room to answer questions. For the most part she expects students to hold their questions until she is free, rather than interrupt the group. On my second visit to the classroom, rules were posted on the chalkboard along with the names of students with incomplete or unacceptable assignments from earlier in the week. The rules read:

No assignment sheets, NO recess.

Classroom Rules

1) Finish all assignments and turn them in on time.
2) Work quietly WITHOUT talking.
3) Follow directions.
4) Respect others' property.
5) Raise your hand for help from the teacher.

These rules reflect the quiet orderliness with which students and teachers move through their complicated daily and weekly routines in Susan's room. It also reflects her emphasis on completing assignments and working individually. While I sometimes saw students at their seats calling to one another and carrying on brief conversations, for the most part they waited with raised hands to ask Susan about their work.

Reading Instruction

Adapting the basal reader. When I asked Susan how she would describe the way she teaches reading, she told me that she uses the basal reading series and adapts it for her students by giving more practice with supplementary materials and by moving more slowly. She introduces skills first in the group lessons and then provides a variety of practice worksheets to be done individually. If she notes that a student is having trouble, she will assign extra seatwork on that particular skill. She will also reteach a lesson if she observes that students are not catching on. For example, on one of my visits she made an impromptu decision to reteach an English lesson. As she checked the seat work students had completed after the last lesson, she began to probe with "Can you tell me what was confusing?" When they had difficulty verbalizing their problems she said to them, "You're not going to use your books today. Let's see if we can get you to understand this a little bit better." In this way she began a review and expansion of the lesson from the previous day.

Several times during our conversations Susan noted that one way she adapts the basal lessons is to check more frequently on students' story comprehension by interspersing questions after every few pages rather than waiting until the end of a story. She says she also checks more frequently than the regular teachers on students' grasp of skills by giving frequent `assessments' provided by the basal series, rather than just the end-of-unit tests. She believes that her instruction does not differ tremendously from that of regular classes except in its slower pace, more careful monitoring of progress, and supplementary practice on skills students find problematic.

As we discussed her use of the basals, Susan commented that she chose to use the series adopted for regular classrooms for two reasons. The first is monetary -- she can get these materials, including several types of workbooks which accompany the series, at no cost to her classroom budget. This allows her to purchase workbooks and materials from other companies to supplement her skills instruction. The second reason involves her goal of mainstreaming these students in their regular classrooms. She told me that she had used a series of linguistic readers in past years but students had had trouble adapting to the non-linguistic readers predominately used in their regular classrooms. She felt their experiences with the linguistic readers were giving them an unrealistic view of their reading abilities and were also causing them to dislike working in their regular classrooms. For these reasons she has been more satisfied using the same texts as the regular classes.

However, one of her biggest disappointments when she began to use the regular program materials was that the Reading, English, and Spelling series were not directly coordinated with one another, either by content or skills. She pulled from under a large stack of books on her desk a thick manual provided by the publisher which gives the page numbers of lessons in all three texts which focus on the same skill. However, she says using this manual is impractical with so many levels of students in one class.

Since Susan has separate instructional groups and seat work activities based on the Reading, English and Spelling texts, students simultaneously work on at least three sets of unrelated language skills. For example, Reading lessons introduce vocabulary related to particular stories and then focus on the work attack and comprehension skills presented in the teacher's manual. Spelling lessons introduce lists of words which are chosen to represent regularities in English spelling patterns. Similarly, the English lessons are designed to focus on features of English grammar or conventions. Thus, students are usually simultaneously working on activities which stress 1) sight words and decoding rules from their reading lessons, 2) the rules which govern the patterns of their spelling words, and 3) rules governing English grammar and conventions such as punctuation and capitalization. Because she relies the texts that are not designed to be easily integrated, Reading, English, and Spelling remain separate subjects in her program.

Reading comprehension instruction. Since the focus of our research was specifically on reading comprehension, Susan and I spent quite a bit of time discussing this aspect of her instruction. She feels most of her students' comprehension problems are related not to oral language problems or lack of experiential background, but to their poor word attack skills. In fact, she believes many of her students have strengths in oral comprehension and background knowledge that they can use in reading. However, she noted that her students sometimes have trouble with comprehension exercises which ask them to pay attention to details, identify the main idea of a story, or sequence story parts. Because she feels it is unlikely that students will get the main idea of a story without paying attention to the details, she works first on activities which help them focus on details.

Susan uses two main types of comprehension activities: comprehension questions after oral reading, and workbook activities. The workbook activities require students to read short paragraphs and then to complete exercises focusing on skills such as following directions, using context, locating answers, looking for details or main ideas, drawing conclusions, sequencing, distinguishing fact from fantasy, etc. Susan also asks students to orally retell stories from the basal booklets available in one of the interest centers.

Although Susan alters lessons to suit her time limitations and the needs of her students, she basically follows the suggestions given in the teacher's manual. Students read a story in their basal text during their reading group about once a week. As they take turns reading aloud, Susan corrects any miscues and sometimes helps them state decoding rules so they can figure out unknown words. To be certain that students are comprehending she asks the literal comprehension questions provided in the teacher's manual. At the end of the story she usually includes some questions requiring predictive inferences and encourages students to provide a number of alternate answers.

An example of small group instruction. On my second visit I observed a reading lesson in which Susan introduced a story from the basal text. After a group of four second and third graders assembled at the table, Susan began the lesson by pointing to the vocabulary words she had written on the board. As she pointed to the first word, man, she asked the group, "Who can tell me this word?" When one of the students responded by reading the word, she asked him to use it in a sentence, and to tell what vowel sound it had. She also asked whether the vowel had a short or long sound. For the words pull and could she prefaced her questions with the caution that these vowels made a different sound from the rules the group had learned earlier, and commented that they would "just have to memorize them." For the next word, woman, she noted that they should see a little word inside it and then paused while they searched for it. As Andrew looked at the word he exclaimed, "Woman. You can hear the /man/", and shared his discovery with the group. Susan congratulated him and asked him to pronounce the final vocabulary word, last. This time he had more trouble and responded with "lest." She asked him to sound it out, waiting patiently until he produced the correct response.

After this introduction to the new vocabulary words, Susan asked the group to turn to page 69 in their reader. Before they began reading she told them that the story was a folktale. They briefly discussed what this meant and Elizabeth shared that she used to tell her grandfather stories about ghosts. When Elizabeth was finished, Susan said to the group, "Read pages 69, 70, and 71 to yourselves and then we'll talk about it." Andrew began to read aloud softly, but stopped to ask Susan for help. "I'm still trying to figure out this word," he said, pointing to the page. Susan looked at the book and read the sentence aloud substituting "blank" for the troublesome word. When he figured it out, she responded, "See how you can use the words around it!"

After the entire group finished the silent reading, Susan began to ask literal comprehension questions: "What happened on the first two pages?", "What was the old man doing?", etc. Students answered these questions easily and Susan next asked them to take turns reading the rest of the story outloud. Once again Andrew responded by taking the first turn. He read slowly, word by word, and without much expression. When he stumbled on one of the new vocabulary words, could, Susan asked, "Who knows that word?" and one of the students supplied the answer. When it was John's turn, he didn't start reading immediately. Instead he showed the group the picture on the next page and predicted what would happen. Then he read the page aloud fairly fluently. The round robin reading continued with Susan asking literal comprehension questions after every few pages. Throughout the oral reading she corrected miscues immediately. When it was Andrew's turn again, he got caught up in the pattern of the text and added an extra word. She stopped him by asking, "Is there an old in there?" He reread the sentence and self-corrected.

When they had finished reading the story, Susan asked questions from the teacher's manual, some of them requiring the students to make predictive or casual inferences: "What do you think would have happened if the mouse hadn't helped?", "Why do you think the turnip finally came up?", etc. In each case she accepted their answers and encouraged them to think of other possibilities with, "That's a good idea! What else?" Both Andrew and John provided detailed scenarios to answer these questions.

Susan drew the lesson to a close by assigning three pages in one of the workbooks which accompanied the basal, but before dismissing the group she went over each page to make sure they understood the directions. Two of the workbook pages required them to focus on the new vocabulary words and the third required them to answer some comprehension questions about the story. When the students indicated they understood what they were to do, they left the table to return to their seat work, and the reading lesson was over.

This lesson is a good example of the way Susan uses oral comprehension questions after story reading. However, when the week's lessons are considered as a whole, she spends much more time on word attack strategies than on comprehension skills. On the days following the reading of a story in the basal, the lessons focus on decoding skills. Susan uses the flipcharts which accompany the basal, as well as workbook pages, to introduce and provide guided practice of skills introduced in the basal. In one of the lessons she gave students three worksheets as `assessments' on skills, and taught about vocalic R and compound words. At the end of the lesson she assigned pages from the two workbooks which accompany the reading series. The first page asked them to complete sentences by writing in one of the vocabulary words they had just studied on the flip chart. The second sheet was designed to focus on the comprehension skill of predicting outcomes. Here students were asked to read a three sentence text and then to predict what would happen next by placing an "X" beside one of two printed phrases. This reading lesson was similar to many I observed in that it primarily introduced and provided practice on word attack skills. Comprehension skills were sometimes included (as in the worksheet assignment), but they often involved exercises with very brief texts which were not related to the stories in the basal.

This description of small group instruction tells only part of the story about reading instruction in Susan's classroom. In fact, reading groups occupy less than half of the time most students spend in the resource room. With few exceptions, the remainder is used for completing assignments at their seats. Since Susan told me she views seat work as an important vehicle for providing practice in language skills, it seemed important that I observe what students did at their desks while other groups were working with the teachers. Additionally, since the completion of seat work took on a great deal of importance in the overall management and structure of the program I felt that focusing only on teacher-directed lessons would present an incomplete picture of the classroom. For this reason I spent part of each visit observing the activities of children working at their desks, and on my last visit I spent the morning observing two students as they completed their seat work.

In general, I noted that students sat quietly at their seats checking the assignments listed on their contracts, writing on their worksheets and workbooks, raising their hands for help from the teachers, and sometimes getting up to get materials stored on shelves around the room or to put work on the teachers' desks for grading. There was little conversation between students, though the teachers occasionally reminded them to work without talking. Susan told me that completion of work is a major problem in the classroom. Therefore, many of her interactions with students working at their seats involved praise for completing assignments or discussion of work yet to be finished. Sometimes free time passes were exchanged for opportunities to play games on the computer or to draw a picture. When all work was complete, some students chose to work on art projects related to holidays, such as a St. Patrick's Day shamrock to be covered with small bits of green tissue paper. But for the most part, students spent the time at their seats working on their Reading, English, Spelling, Math, and Handwriting assignments.

Two examples of individual seat work. When I asked Susan which students I should observe at their seats, she suggested a fourth grader, Jennifer, and a first grader, John. On the Friday morning I observed Jennifer, she had to take a spelling test in addition to completing the nine assignments on her contract:

1. Reading Workbook Page: Answer literal level comprehension questions on the story read in the last group lesson.

2. English: Write sentences with 15 irregular verbs studied in the Language group.

3. Spelling: Write the week's words three times before taking the spelling test.

4. Comprehension Worksheet: Read a five sentence paragraph and then sequence five statements about the story. Choose one of two statements as the "best" ending.

5. Locating Sentences Worksheet: Unscramble letters arranged in a grid two across and four down (similar to an acrostic) to find short sentences. Write them on the line provided. Use correct punctuation and capitalization.

6. Animals Crossword Puzzle: Use the labeled pictures of animals and written clues to complete the puzzle.

7. Understanding Suffixes -er and -est Workbook Page: Draw a line from the words with suffixes to the correct pictures.

8. Recognizing Comparative Suffixes, -er, -est Workbook Page: Add a suffix to a stem to complete a sentence. (e.g. "June makes smooth__mashed potatoes than Bob.")

9. Spelling Workbook: Add the suffixes -ly, -er, and -ful to stems to complete sentences.

Susan commented that Jennnifer works fairly steadily. This day was no exception. Jennifer completed all nine assignments and took her spelling test during the three and a half hours she spent in the resource room that morning.

The other student, John, began the morning by talking with the teacher assistant about a worksheet he had not completed correctly. She explained that he was supposed to complete the sentences with color words, and then use crayons to color a picture "by the numbers". Though he had completed the sentences correctly, he had not followed the directions when he chose colors for the picture. Clutching the worksheet, he returned to his desk, shuffled it to the bottom of the pile of papers and began working on a sheet entitled "ACK BACK". This sheet asked him to copy a number of words containing the letters ack, such as back and black, and then to draw and color a black sack and several other items. John began to color one of the figures and then stopped to look at another sheet upside down. This one was titled "AD SAD". He returned to "ACK BACK" and worked for a while. Without finishing, he stacked all his sheets together, leafed through them, stacked them up again, put his folder in his desk, and then returned to correcting the colors on the sheet he had discussed with the teacher assistant.

Thus far, almost forty minutes had passed. Soon John shuffled this worksheet to the back of the pile, and looked at a new one. The new one was called "Meaning Patterns" and the directions said to color all the words rhyming with took blue and all the others yellow. The only other direction was a sentence which said "The mystery number is _________". John looked in his desk for a blue crayon and started right in. He quickly colored rows and columns of words blue -- very darkly and very neatly. When he paused to study the sheet a bit more, he sighed and raised his hand. When Susan was free she came to his desk. John said he didn't understand the "mystery number part", so she explained that he was supposed to count the number of words which rhymed with took. As she looked at the sheet and noticed that he had colored a number of non-rhyming words blue, she taught a mini-lesson on rhyming words which began with the question, "What has to be the same for words to rhyme?" When John responded O O, she asked him what rhymed with took and wrote his response, book, alongside took. Using these two words as models, Susan asked him to look again to see which parts were the same. With her help he eventually stated the rule that a vowel and a consonant must be the same in rhyming words. So he could correct his paper, Susan asked him to color words black if he had incorrectly colored them blue. After she left he looked at the paper for a moment and wrote "11" in the mystery box. Next he tried to color over some the of the blue words with a yellow crayon, but soon gave that up. Instead, he wroteNO next to them with a pencil. When he finished, John put all the sheets in his folder, and placed it on the aide's desk to be graded.

The type and number of seat work assignments completed by Jennifer and John are not unusual. Instead they represent the kinds of individual activities which children in Susan's room complete every day. As in these two instances, the majority of Reading, English, and Spelling worksheets highlight structural aspects of language such as sound/symbol correspondences, word prefixes and suffixes, verb tenses, and so forth. When comprehension exercises are included, the texts are usually very brief. Most of the other exercises limit texts to single sentences. Writing usually consists of filling in the blanks in sentences, making X's to mark selections, and generating sentences containing words from the Reading, English, and Spelling lessons. Susan told me that students only write longer texts when they are asked to create brief stories about upcoming holidays.

Together these accounts of small group reading instruction and daily seat work activities form a composite picture of what reading instruction typically looks like in Susan's classroom. There are some exceptions, however. For one student she has developed a reading program which uses a trade book as the text. And on Fridays, the pattern of individual seat work is broken when she groups students together to play educational games just before lunch. Still, both my observations and my conversations with Susan indicate that the group and individual activities presented above represent the usual instructional activities in which she and the children engage.

REFLECTING ON THE CURRICULUM: SUSAN'S COMMENTS

During the course of my conversations with Susan, I often asked her to reflect on her curriculum. Sometimes I asked her to evaluate the effectiveness of various instructional techniques for students labeled learning disabled, or to explain why she had planned particular activities, and to talk about the practical constraints on her instructional decisions. Since I do not have a background in special education, we spent time discussing her perceptions of the similarities and differences between regular and special education classes. In these conversations we also discussed the patterns of relations between special and regular classrooms and the attitudes of each group toward the other. Finally, we spent one afternoon talking about the broad goals of education and about what she would change in her reading program if she could.

In the remainder of this section, Susan speaks for herself on a number of these issues. Because I recorded our conversations with handwritten field notes, the accounts presented are not verbatim records. Instead, they are excerpts from my expanded field notes which have been edited for clarity. Though the form of these texts is my own and reflects my role as interviewer, Susan read and approved these notes as representing the beliefs, doubts and wishes she expressed in our conversations.

On Instructional Techniques

Susan mentioned that she sometimes wonders why we teach some things the way we do. For example, "Why do we ask students to write spelling words several times each day?" I asked if the teacher's manual for the Spelling text suggests this activity. She said it does. She said she knows that at times kids aren't learning much by doing it. She has seen students start at the top line and write C on each line -- one letter under the other. Then they do the same thing with A and T, so they have quickly written CAT on five lines. She thinks it gets the work done faster, but it doesn't help them learn the words. We discussed why this assignment might be given. I suggested the behaviorist notion that practicing something correctly many times strengthens the S-R bond. She said that this might be one reason, but she felt the other important one was that it kept students busy at their seats.

On Skills-Based Reading Instruction

I asked Susan if she thought that the emphasis on individual skills worked well for kids identified as learning disabled. She said she wasn't really sure that so much skill work helps students read. She said she cares more that they can read social studies texts or other types of texts than that they can do the skills. However, she isn't sure what else students would do individually at their seats if they didn't do skill sheets. At times she thinks it would be better to just let students read through their books, stopping to work on skills when problems came up in the course of reading, "When you use a skills approach, you tend to pull out everything you have focusing on short i, or whatever, instead of working on the skill as they read their texts."

On Reading Instruction in Special Education

Susan thinks there is sometimes too much emphasis on writing and reading. She thinks there should be more emphasis on knowledge of the content [e.g. social studies] rather than the ability to write about it correctly. She said she would rather her students could converse about these subjects because she doesn't think written expression is a very good yardstick for what they know. Because her students are already having trouble with reading and are behind, there is pressure from other teachers who think that these special education students should do `reading' all day. Susan doesn't agree with this. She gave the example that she isn't great at art, but it wouldn't be right for her to have to do that all day.

On Wishes for Change

I asked Susan what she would change about her program if she could. She said that she would like to make activities more functional. . . She gave examples of having the students fill out job applications or take trips to the grocery store where reading would be related to those activities. She said she would like to add these activities "so they would know why they're doing all this" [i.e., learning these individual skills].

A second wish was that students understand that reading can be fun. She talked about her own enjoyment of books and the worlds they open up. She feels that most of her students have no idea reading can provide these types of experiences.

A third wish was that she could keep up with what the students were doing better -- how they were progressing in the skills -- and then be able to locate the materials needed to help them. She said it has been difficult to keep tabs as closely as she would like with so many students.

On Possible Solutions

Susan described an integrated language arts approach discussed in one of her Master's classes where the spelling words are used in math exercises, etc. In such a program there would be a language arts time rather than English, Spelling, and Reading times. Presently she feels she doesn't have time to organize this type of program because there are so many levels of students in her room. In order to use this type of integrated program she would have to reorganize the way she now has the room structured. She said she would also like to think about implementing more thematic units.

On Educational Goals

Susan said she thinks "we should examine our goals for what kind of people we want these kids to become. We need to examine how we're teaching these things." But she wasn't sure what else she would do in her room. The changes she mentioned would be hard to implement. She says when she first started teaching she wasn't sure what would be better, but now she has other ideas which are just hard to implement with 24 kids.

REFLECTING ON LITERACY INSTRUCTION: MY COMMENTS

In the two preceding sections I have presented a description of Susan's classroom and her comments about the instructional program she has implemented. In this final section I would like to discuss my own impressions of Susan's program. In the course of this discussion I will address the concerns Susan voices in light of current research and theories of language learning, and also in light of my own beliefs about literacy instruction.

Conflicts between Traditional Methods and Susan's Vision of Literacy

One of the first things which struck me on my visits to Susan's classroom was the thoroughness and efficiency with which she had implemented a skills-based reading program using a basal reading series. In fact, she made the most complete use of basal materials -- the readers, workbooks, flipcharts, skillpacks, and assessments -- I had ever observed in an elementary classroom. In addition she had selected worksheets from other published programs to provide additional practice on the skills being emphasized.

Implementing such a program on an individualized basis for 24 students from six grades and many ability levels is an impressive feat of planning and organization. It is easy for me to understand why Susan was recommended to us as an exemplary reading teacher. She has overcome the difficulties inherent in the resource room situation to provide skills instruction for her students, and she has done this by implementing the suggestions made by many reading methods texts and basal reading programs.

What is ironic, of course, is that in our conversations Susan expressed doubts which questioned the very foundation of her program. The theme which ran through many of her comments was the concern about whether her curriculum actually allowed students to experience and come to value real literacy -- the kind which gets things done. Susan once commented that she fears her students are not making the connection between skills lessons and reading and writing for personally meaningful purposes. These are serious concerns for a teacher whose entire curriculum is based on introducing, providing practice, and evaluating students' mastery of the sequences of skills presented in the Reading, Spelling, and English texts. They indicate that she realizes that her current instructional methods might be in conflict with her overall educational goals.

When I asked her what factors had influenced the way she teaches reading, she told me that her reading methods courses consisted primarily of looking at the teacher's manuals of basal reading series. And in her words, "Whatever else I've learned about teaching reading has come from working with kids in the classroom." After four years of teaching she has worked out ways to make her basal reading instruction run smoothly and efficiently. But when I asked her to turn her attention from the structure of her program to the learning outcomes it produces, she openly questioned whether the expert advice she received in class and from the basal manuals should have been trusted. Even though she provides enough practice for her students to master the skills, she notices that many of them are still not becoming the kind of readers who can, or wish to, use literacy for their own purposes.

Identifying Curricular Messages About Literacy

If we assume with Harste and Burke (1985) that children learn what they experience, see demonstrated, and come to value, we can begin to see why programs like Susan's, which are built strictly around basal materials, may present a view of literacy which has little to do with its functional uses or with the expansion of personal thinking. The literacy experiences of children in Susan's classroom are functional in the sense that they are aimed at increasing their success in school -- but they have little relation to the uses of literacy outside of school. Children read primarily for the purposes of completing assignments, and the majority of this reading involves following directions and responding to the brief texts presented on worksheets. When stories are read, they usually become the stage for skill instruction rather than expansion of content knowledge or thinking skills.

Susan worries that students do not understand the purposes of the skills they learn. Though she follows the sequences prescribed by the programs, she sees that students frequently can recite the rules they have learned but cannot apply them when actually reading. The curricular message received by many of her students is that reading is a school activity involving the mastery of skills, the completion of worksheets, and the answering of teacher questions.

This situation is further aggravated by the three unrelated sets of skills taught by the Reading, Spelling, and English texts which, together, send the additional message that literacy involves success in three `subjects' which are only tangentially related. Furthermore, the majority of literacy experiences provided by the three sets of texts focus on the structure of written language, rather than its functions or meaning. Some might argue that youngsters must control these skills before they can begin to read for meaning. But Susan's comments indicate that she is concerned that her students may be forming a vision of literacy which will prevent them from ever choosing to explore its functional potentials. They are learning that literacy involves understanding the structure of language rather than its uses.

When we look at the <u>demonstrations</u> of literacy provided in Susan's room, we see that the most frequent uses of reading and writing for both adults and children are skills activities and the management of the classroom environment. The skills worksheets demonstrate that literacy is a contract between the teacher and student for the purpose of discovering right answers. Purposes for reading and writing are generally teacher selected, and most activities have one correct answer. Rarely is literacy a wider social event. Instead, students complete activities selected by the teacher, and she remains the primary audience for their attempts at reading and writing. Literacy experiences are shared with the class when they are evaluated by the teachers as `excellent work'. The major exchange of ideas and information during these instructional events is between the teacher who has the answers and a student who may or may not.

This situation leads to curricular messages that literacy involves accurate decoding of a single, correct meaning, and that reading is an individual event which has little relation to social interaction. This is quite different from literacy outside schools. There, reading and writing frequently involve a variety of social exchanges. Texts become the impetus for social transactions between readers and writers or between several readers of the same text. Even when readers are physically alone, they construct meanings based on past experiences in their social community. In that sense, reading is always a social event.

Because the basal activities are designed to highlight a single skill selected by the authors of the worksheets, students have no choice of the hypotheses to be explored. If they focus on some other aspect of language, they will complete the exercises incorrectly. In order to succeed in these activities, students must receive the message that an important part of literacy learning is attending to the same aspects of language as the teacher or basal publisher. This runs counter to the way successful readers choose from among many available demonstrations to test those hypotheses they find most interesting. As Frank Smith (1982) suggests, if the skills chosen for emphasis are irrelevant to the learners' current hypotheses, they will be learned as something irrelevant - making the hoped-for connections between skills and actual reading unlikely. The basal-based activities tend to provide many demonstrations of the functions literacy serves in schools, but few clues to its uses apart from instruction.

A final consideration is what type of literacy children come to value in skills-based programs of this type. Susan is concerned that her students are not coming to value reading as a source of enjoyment. They have no idea what it is to lose themselves in the world of books. First, it is unlikely that they will come to value aspects of literacy they are not experiencing or seeing demonstrated. Second, there are two powerful indicators of what type of literacy is valued in the classroom. The first is the amount of time spent on the various types of literacy experiences, and the second is evaluation. Students soon learn that what is evaluated is frequently what is most valued. Thus, in Susan's program it is not surprising that many students are coming to value accuracy in decoding and ability to complete skills exercises, but seem to have little motivation to read for pleasure and often fail to focus on meaning when they are asked to read stories in their basal. Susan is concerned that the vision of literacy her students are forming is not the one she had intended to foster through her curriculum.

The Intended Versus the Experienced Curriculum

Susan has put her finger squarely on a major problem. When she takes as her immediate instructional goal the mastery of individual skills, her concern for reading and writing as meaning-making activities takes a back seat. Susan has noticed that many of her students are so used to the experience of reading without comprehending that they have ceased to look for meaning in reading activities. Though these students' histories of failure in traditional reading activities undoubtedly contribute to this situation, it is likely that the instructional activities should also be implicated as part of the problem. When the daily seat work activities are examined, it is clear that comprehension is not the central focus. In fact, to focus on creating a unified meaning is nonfunctional (if not impossible) in the majority of these activities. What is important is focusing on the structures of language, such as letter/sound relationships, spelling patterns, etc. Since a great deal of classroom time is spent on these activities, it is not surprising that students are forming visions of literacy which revolve around accurate decoding and word analysis rather than comprehension. The structure of the program sends this message, and the students receive and understand it. Because they believe in the teacher's expertise and greater knowledge, they adopt the view of literacy they are experiencing in school.

Durkin's (1978-79, 1981, 1984) work indicates that Susan's approach to reading instruction is not unusual. In a recent study (1984) of basal-based reading instruction, Durkin found many classes with instructional patterns similar to those in

Susan's room. For example, "the most apparent and widespread pattern was the generous use of written practice" (p.742). As in the 1978-1979 study, she found that the most common comprehension activities were post-reading questions. However, as Durkin (1978-79, 1984) stresses, comprehension is seldom the primary focus of reading instruction in these classrooms.

From my talks with Susan, it is clear that this is not the type of literacy she intends to foster with her curriculum. But she, too, has relied on "experts" -- the teacher educators at the university and the authors of basal materials -- for suggestions about literacy instruction. Only now is she beginning to question whether a curriculum based on their suggestions can encourage the kind of literacy she values.

Although the basal authors will say that they never intended for teachers to focus so heavily on word attack skills at the expense of comprehension, the structure of the basal materials makes the fragmentation of language into a set of unrelated skills almost a foregone conclusion. When the sheer amount of material focusing on the structural aspects of language - in the basal texts, in the workbooks, in the skillpacks, on the flipcharts, and on the assessment tests - is weighed against the amount which stresses comprehension, there is no contest. Comprehension appears an unimportant stepchild of word attack instruction and practice (Durkin, 1981).

Just as Susan's students respond to the total context of the classroom to determine what is important about literacy, teachers respond to the signals sent by the professional context in which they have been trained and in which they are currently teaching to determine what are important components of literacy instruction. Published sets of instructional reading materials are important features of this context. As they become familiar with these materials, teachers infer that the answer to reading problems must be more skills practice. After all, why else would publishers provide so many extra workbooks and skills sheets for students having difficulty?

Though the publishers seem to be right in saying that they provide suggestions for improving comprehension instruction which are not followed by teachers (Durkin, 1984), the general format of the programs mitigate against the implementation of these recommendations. What is being demonstrated by the overall composition of the materials is that comprehension is less important than decoding skills. If comprehension was important, wouldn't the publishers provide more supplementary materials which allow students to actually read? Might they not create a set of supplementary texts which contain stories and articles related to the content of the basal stories, rather than sets of supplementary skills sheets? In their current form, most basal reading programs present a gestalt that suggests to teachers that reading instruction should focus on decoding skills.

But basal authors and teachers are not the only ones who seem unaware of the impact of the larger context in which instructional activities are embedded. Teacher educators frequently fall into this trap as well. If the major emphasis in methods courses is on managing the technology of reading instruction, it is no wonder pre-service teachers do not find the lectures on examining literacy goals memorable or relevant. Like Susan's elementary students, many undergraduate education majors experience curricular messages about literacy which are quite different from those intended by their professors.

The argument I am making is essentially an argument about the importance of the overall context of the learning environment for the formation of attitudes and concepts about literacy. All of us tend to learn what we experience, see demonstrated, and come to value. The context of teachers' encounters with reading methods instruction and basal reading programs, and of students' encounters with classroom reading instruction, send powerful messages about literacy and literacy instruction. All of us are constantly learning about literacy - though we may not be constructing the vision of literacy which was intended. What is needed in each of these cases is an awareness by teachers, publishers, and teacher educators that learners of all ages attend to the entire network of cues available in the learning environment - not just those cues which have intentionally been selected by curricular designers to carry meaning.

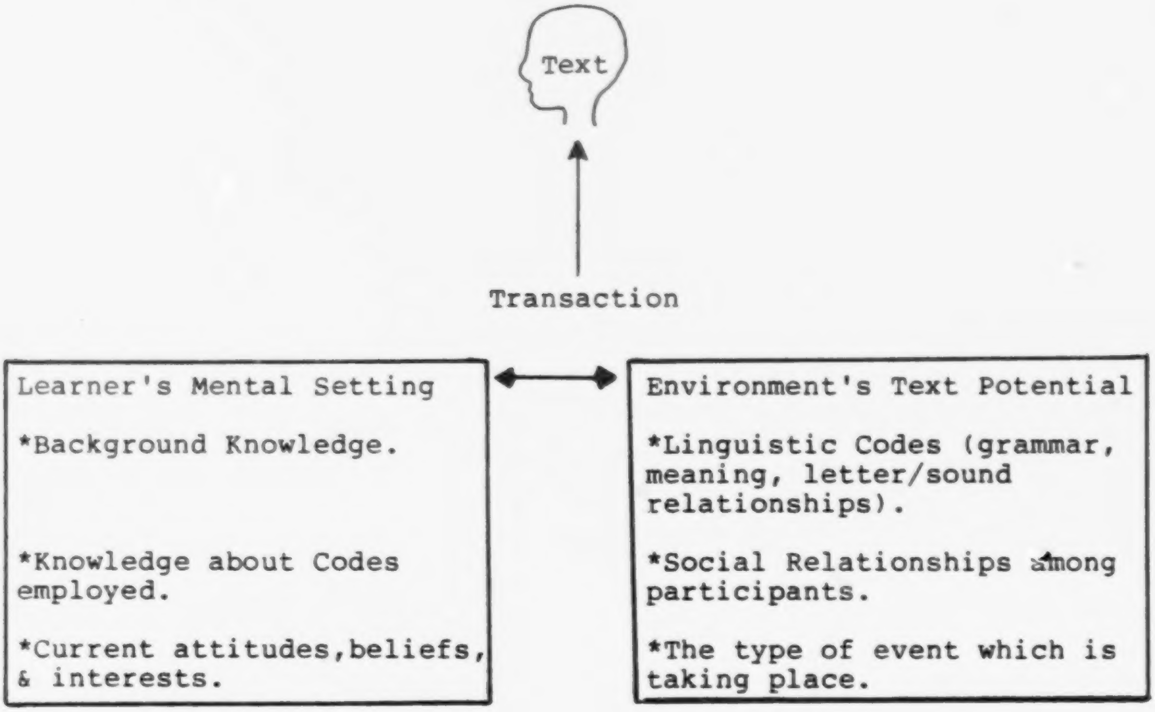
Examining the Gap Between Intentions and Experience: Rethinking the Role of Text

In the preceding section I made the point that there often exists a gap between the messages teachers intend to send through their curricula and those meanings which are actually experienced by the students. I also suggested that designers of instructional materials and teacher educators have a similar problem. It seems that communicating, whether it is through curricular experiences or a written text, is a difficult process. Many times our students or readers go away from the encounter with meanings we never intended, and perhaps never imagined. This gap between intended and experienced meanings is at the heart of the curricular dilemma faced both by Susan and the designers of instructional materials. It is also at the heart of the problems many of her students experience when they read. The relevant questions seem to be: How can we explain these gaps in communication? and, How can we begin to communicate our visions of literacy more effectively through curriculum? I will deal with the first of these questions below and address the second one in the next section.

In order to begin to understand why gaps in communication occur between teachers and students or between authors and readers, it is necessary to make explicit a theory of communication. I have already revealed some of my own assumptions by suggesting that it is a theory of communication which is needed, rather than separate theories of curriculum and reading. It seems to me that educators have a great deal to gain from coming to see both curricular events and linguistic interchanges as related by a single cognitive process of meaning construction.

The theoretical frame which seems to me most helpful in explaining these communication difficulties is a transactional model which defines the processes of sending and receiving messages as cognitively identical (Carey & Harste, in press; Rosenblatt, 1978; Siegel, 1984). On both sides of the process, the teacher and student (or author and reader) construct meanings using their knowledge of linguistic and social codes as well as their stocks of previously contsructed meanings. An important assumption of this model is that curricular activities (and written language) exist in the environment as complexes of linguistic and social codes forming potential messages (i.e., potential texts). As students construct the meaning of an event, they actualize some portion of the message potential to form their own mental text. (See Figure 1).

Figure 1. A Transaction Between a Learner and the Environment



Learner's Mental Setting

*Background Knowledge.

*Knowledge about Codes employed.

*Current attitudes,beliefs, & interests.

Environment's Text Potential

*Linguistic Codes (grammar, meaning, letter/sound relationships).

*Social Relationships among participants.

*The type of event which is taking place.

And because senders and receivers of messages do not necessarily share all of the same knowledge about the world or about the codes employed in the communicative process, messages can never be received as sent (Siegel, 1984). Therefore, gaps between intended and experienced messages are to be expected simply because the participants will always come to communicative events with different knowledge bases, and because each encounter between a text potential and a student (or reader) is a unique event. Though the preceding discussion has been brief, I would now like to apply some of these theoretical notions to the problem of designing materials and curricula which promote a functional, comprehension-centered view of literacy. First, within a transactional model of communication, the role of the curriculum developer is the arrangement of the learning environment to provide opportunities for students to experience and see demonstrations of functional literacy. As Eisner (1982) puts it, "Teachers and curriculum designers have no direct access to the internal conditions of the individual except through the qualities they create in the environment" (p. 55). If communication is always an act of interpretation, teachers cannot transfer literacy knowledge directly to the students. Instead they must attempt to create conditions which have a high probability of being interpreted by students as invitations to use literacy for functional purposes. In other words, teachers send messages about literacy by creating classroom conditions (message potentials). Students transact with these complex networks of linguistic and non-linguistic codes to form their own understandings (texts) about literacy.

This model of communication requires us to rethink our usual notions of text. Rather than a static representation of meanings, text is seen as the mental journey taken by students as they transact with the classroom environment. Texts become in-head phenomena created by active interpretation; that is, texts consist of the meanings created by students as they participate in classroom discussions, by readers as they become engrossed in their favorite books, and by writers as they draft and revise their pieces. In each case texts are created by an active composing process. Further, because each student brings a different history of instruction, different social and cultural knowledge, and different interests to the classroom, their interpretations of classroom events will be different. It is a familiar observation that students interpret the same classroom activity differently. Similarly, no two readers construct exactly the same meanings from a text they are reading. For that matter, readers returning to a text at a later time usually see new meanings, though the print has not changed. What the learner brings to the event changes the meanings which are constructed. For this reason, teachers must continue to carefully observe students' responses to the curriculum. Just as conversational partners constantly monitor each others' responses and adjust subsequent statements accordingly, teachers and students become partners in the larger communicative event of the curriculum. In order to communicate the desired messages about literacy, teachers must monitor students' interpretations of classroom events, and adjust the curriculum accordingly.

This model of communication causes us to rethink the definition of text in yet another way. I have already described text as the meanings learners construct in transactions with available linguistic and social codes. Though I have emphasized the constructed nature of texts, a second important aspect of the transactional definition of text is that language users make use of both linguistic and non-linguistic cues in its creation. This is important for the process of curriculum development because it forces us to take a broader view of the types of cues to which learners attend. For example, in the case of basal reading programs, I have already noted that the sheer amount of material focusing on decoding skills may be interpreted as sign that comprehension is less important than decoding. In Susan's classroom the large amount of time devoted to worksheets also becomes part of the message potential from which students construct understandings of the nature and purpose of literacy. Other non-lingusitic aspects of the curriculum such as room arrangement, the type and tone of social transactions related to literacy, and the range of reading and writing activities also become part of this message potential. To summarize, transactional models of the communication process suggest that texts are mental constructions based on the message potentials of spoken and written language and of the contextual cues available in the environment. Both senders and receivers of messages are actively involved in constructing their own texts. Because they do not share exactly the same background knowledge, personal abilities and interests, or knowledge of the way the codes may be used, variation in interpretation is to be expected.

Closing the Gap: Monitoring Curricular Messages About Literacy

This transactional model of communication provides two important insights for addressing the question of how teachers might more effectively communicate their visions of literacy through curriculum.

First, it suggests that participants in literacy events are likely to interpret the same message potential in different ways. This is important, not only because it highlights the probability of individual differences among students, but also because it raises the strong possibility that the largest gap in experience (and thus, in meaning) may be between teachers and students. Corsaro (1979a, 1979b, 1985), in his work with preschoolers, has shown that very young children build understandings of the world which are often quite different from those of adults. Though older children may appear to perceive the world more like adults, it is likely that a gap still exists.

For example, Susan comes to the task of reading instruction as an accomplished reader who understands both the pleasure and utility of reading. As a good reader, she can reflect on her own processes to see that she sometimes uses the strategies of `sounding-out' or making predictions about upcoming story events to help maintain comprehension. So she assumes that her students will interpret skills lessons as an intermediate step on the way to this sort of comprehension-centered literacy. However, because she has begun to observe that many of her students do not read for meaning, do not apply the skills they have mastered, and do not choose to read for pleasure, she is beginning to question these assumptions. Susan has made discovery which is vital to good literacy instruction. She has discovered that there is a gap between her intended curriculum and the meanings which students are experiencing. A transactional model of literacy instruction suggests that teachers must become aware of the possibility (and even necessity) of this gap, and begin to close it by observing the responses of their students. A second insight offered by this perspective is the need to be aware of a broader range of codes when planning literacy activities. For the most part, teachers and designers of materials have been concerned with the linguistic cues presented in instructional activities. Attention to broader contextual factors has been less common. This is exemplified by the basal publishers' addition of comprehension activities without accompanying changes in the overall format of the programs in which these activities are embedded. Publishers have usually assumed that teachers are attending primarily to the written directions to learn about effective reading instruction. Given Durkin's (1984) findings that teachers more consistently use the written practice exercises than the suggestions for comprehension instruction, it is possible that teachers are responding instead to non-linguistic cues about literacy instruction sent by the format and composition of these packages of materials. Similarly, Susan's students are attending to social and situational cues when they find short-cuts to help them copy their spelling words quickly and neatly. Though Susan has intended for them to attend to spelling patterns of individual words, the students are responding to more salient contextual cues which place value on speed and neatness. For literacy instruction to be improved, curriculum designers must step back and look at individual activities in the context of the entire instructional program. They must also be aware of the many types of linguistic and non-linguistic cues which are interpreted in each literacy event.

Therefore, it seems that there are at least three types of activities which teachers can undertake in an effort to become more effective at conveying the message that comprehension is what literacy is all about. What is needed, first, is an understanding of the nature of the communication process and its implications for curriculum. What is needed second, is an examination of the kinds of literacy experiences which we value as educators and as a nation. And needed, third, is the design of curricula and materials based on this vision of literacy. In the planning process it is essential that the curriculum be seen as a whole, because this is how learners will experience it. Attention must be given to the range and types of literacy invitations which are extended, the types of demonstrations which are available, and the messages which are sent about the types of literacy which are valued in the classroom. Further, refinement of the curriculum can only occur through careful observation of the notions learners are forming about reading and writing as a result of their classroom experiences.

MOVING TOWARD COMPREHENSION-CENTERED READING INSTRUCTION

Before concluding I would like to return to Susan and the problem she faces. If she continues to question whether her program fosters the development of functional, meaning-centered literacy, she will have to make changes in her program. It is unlikely that minor changes in the types of activities will send a different message if the overall emphasis remains on the completion of skills exercises. In order to implement a reading program in which skills are integrated into an ongoing search for meaning, she will have to change the way her program is structured. It will require her to find ways for students to use literacy for personally meaningful purposes. The overall context of her curriculum will have to send the message that comprehension is what reading is all about.

One way to support Susan and other teachers who want to bring their curricula more in line with real-world literacy, is to help them gain confidence in their own abilities to think and plan theoretically, and to be sensitive observers of their students' responses to curriculum. This seems like a risky enterprise to many teachers because it often dictates that basal materials will not be used as directed, will be used in a much more limited way, or will not be used at all. Teachers need support from their peers, supervisors, and consultants to see that a comprehension-centered classroom cannot be based on decisions made by someone outside the setting. As Frank Smith (1982) says: "Children do not learn to read from programs.... only people can demonstrate how written language is used. Programs cannot help children to do these things for themselves, since they cannot anticipate what a child will want to do or know at a particular time" (p. 179). Teachers are the only ones who can create a classroom environment where the focus is truly on comprehension because they are the ones who have the information needed to match the classroom environment to the backgrounds, interests, and needs of the learners.

Finally, as researchers and teachers we need to continue to make suggestions to the publishers of basal materials. For better or for worse, these materials are highly influential in American classrooms. We need to continue to call for changes which will highlight comprehension as the primary purpose for reading. Since the materials are currently overbalanced in the direction of word-attack skills, there is certainly room for the creation of new formats, including sets of readings on related topics which teachers can use more flexibly. However, if skills workbooks and activities continue to remain the most salient and tangible part of these programs, it is unlikely that much change will be made in the way the materials are used. Teachers will continue to respond to the demonstrations about the nature of literacy instruction which are most salient.

Obviously, there is not one set of skills or experiences which leads to literacy. As I have tried to point out, neither is there one definition of what literacy involves, because it depends on the context in which the reading and writing is embedded. However, those of us involved in education cannot afford to allow own notions of literacy to remain unexamined. We must think about the range of reading and writing abilities which our students may need in a rapidly changing, technological society. I believe they will need a kind of literacy which allows them to expand their current notions about the world, and to get things done. If this is the type of literacy we want for our students, then instruction must allow them to become engaged in situations where literacy is functional and generative. Teachers have the front-line responsibility for providing instruction which fosters this sort of literacy. What they need is support for making changes which will bring their curricula in line with their own visions of literacy.

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Chapter 4

LEGITIMIZING TEACHERS' INSIGHTS

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INTRODUCTION

> Martha would like to have more time for reading for enjoyment [in her classroom], e.g. 20 minutes just to read. She is very concerned about this, since she knows that many of her students don't see reading in the home, and she believes that people learn to love to read by seeing other people read. She doesn't know how she can implement this, however, considering all the other demands on time in the class. She has heard of teachers who build this into their curricula, so that they read classics and library books in class. She doesn't see how they manage to fit it in - says it's like a 'dream world'
> (Martha: Interview, p. 6).

Many teachers work in a constant state of cognitive tension. On the one hand they have a set of operational beliefs which they have built or have inherited from their educational mentors, and on the other hand they have a number of beliefs which at worst contradict and at best do not fit well with those operational beliefs. Such teachers have three options. They can suppress the controversy within themselves by ignoring those ideas which challenge their current set of beliefs; they can investigate those insights which disturb them, but only as safe, peripheral additions to their curricula; or, they can pursue those insights vigorously by putting them at the center of a revised curriculum and by continuously examining and re-examining the results of those and subsequent revisions.

Of the teachers who perceive a discrepancy between the set of beliefs upon which they currently operate, and the beliefs which press upon them in their observation of and interaction with students, it is probably safe to say that most teachers attempt either to suppress those doubts or to make peripheral adjustments to their curricula. It is the rare teacher who has the wherewithal to massively revise her curriculum and maintain a state of continuous exploration and curricular evaluation.

We have found in this study that the teachers who do undertake such massive revisions, do so within the context of a supportive fellow-teacher and/or supervisor relationship. Teachers need an independent and respected supportive voice to legitimize their insights. This is as much an administrative enabling factor as an emotional support factor. Both aspects come into play in allowing radical change to take place. Where such supportive legitimization is not at hand, the reflective independent teacher falls back on additions to the accepted curriculum in order to incorporate into her program those aspects of learning which she has come to see are important, but lacking, in her classroom.

This chapter presents the cases of two teachers. Both are considered highly capable within their school districts, but both sense or have sensed that there are important aspects of learning which are or were not supported by their regular curricula. Both articulate their concerns and both have attempted to ameliorate the situation in their classrooms. But, in the first case to be presented, no explicit support from colleagues has legitimized the importance of this teacher's concerns. She has made adjustments to her curriculum, but has done so only in a peripheral way, while maintaining a committment to her current, accepted curriculum. It is quite likely that many teachers, in reading the description of this teacher, will see themselves reflected and will identify with the way in which she has dealt with her malaise. The second case to be presented is that of a teacher who found herself in a school where a fellow teacher and a supervisor supported her insights into problems in her classroom and aideed her in her search for alternatives. As a result, she radically revised her curriculum.

An Adjusted Curriculum: Martha's Classroom

Martha's professional preparation was in elementary education, but she has spent her entire teaching career of more than nine years working with intermediate level students labeled mildly mentally handicapped. She is highly respected in her district and is described affectionately by her principal as a real "crackerjack" of a teacher. When one enters her classroom, it is immediately apparent that she has both the affection and the respect of her students.

Her classroom organization and the format of her curriculum are quite traditional. Desks are lined up to face the front board, a table in the front left-hand corner serves as the reading table, basal series are used as the core of the reading curriculum, and worksheets make up a large portion of the students' class activities. Traditional as this is, it belies other beliefs which Martha has about effective learning. What follows is an attempt to demonstrate the dilemna which Martha faces. First, a picture of Martha's core reading curriculum is drawn, and then a discussion of those beliefs which at times lie at cross-purposes to that curriculum are discussed.

The General Plan of Martha's Reading Curriculum

Martha's general plan for reading instruction follows a four day cycle, and involves three reading groups working on basal materials. While each group is at the reading table, the remaining students work at their desks on worksheets. In our discussions Martha detailed the basic structure of her program.

The three reading groups follow the same instructional pattern, although they use different basal series. On the first day of the cycle, Martha introduces new vocabulary from the basal story and has students engage in one of a number of vocabulary activities. These include playing word games, creating sentences, underlining the vocabulary words in the story, and looking up the words in the dictionary. On the second day, the students read the story silently and answer comprehension questions orally. The third day begins with Martha reading the story and asking questions regarding selected sentences. The session continues with the introduction of specific skills. On the fourth day of the cycle, skills are reviewed using worksheets, both during the reading group period and during desk work. While other students are meeting in their reading groups, those remaining at their desks do a variety of skills activities. These include doing ditto pages from the MCP (Modern Curriculum Press), completing spelling exercises, looking up dictionary words, creating sentences, and completing worksheets on the use of capital letters and periods. The younger students also cut out letters from newspapers. Martha's approach to reading instruction is a familiar one. Her most crucial choice is her selection of the basal series she will use with her reading groups. The content of her reading program and her choice of instructional strategies follow largely from that basal selection. Martha's selection and use of supplementary materials such as the Modern Curriculum Press for seat work follow as well from the choice of a basal reader as the center of the reading curriculum. While she might make other choices for seat work activities, drill sheets are logical extensions of the content and activities emphasized by the basal reader.

Brief excerpts from an observation of two of the reading groups in Martha's class illustrate how her reading sessions proceed. Note that even while she is very tied to the lesson set by the basal series, she supports children when they introduce their own experiences into the lesson.

Excerpt One

> The third [reading group] comes up. These are the youngest children. They work with their MLR [Merrill Linguistic Reader] books. Martha says, "Sit up straight and

> tall." They begin reading with the boy on the right. He gets stuck on a word. She helps him sound it out. He gets it and she smiles and says, "You got it," in a tone indicating that she knew he would. The next child reads. Martha points along in his book. The next child reads. He points to each word. All of the children in this group read haltingly, the last child less so. Martha asks them questions: "Why is the fog better than the sun?"...
>
> Martha then asks questions about an upcoming text about a broken pen. "Why did they have to fix it? They give possible reasons and she says yes, they're all good possiblities. They read to find out the answer as to why they had to fix the pen, and when they finish, raise their hands. One says, "The dogs dug under it and let the animals out." She asks another, "Is that what you thought?" Another says, "The pen broke." Martha says the first child did a really good job of understanding the answer and that he was exactly right....[She asks:] "Why was it hard to fix the pen?" A: "It was hot." Martha says, "It is not fun to work on a hot summer day, is it? It's much more fun to go swimming." They all respond with comments. One boy said he spent all summer chopping wood. Martha asks, "Do you have a wood stove?" He nods. They then go around and read the story orally. Martha stops them when they read a wrong word and supplies them with one if they're confused.
> (Martha: Observation 3, p.4).

Excerpt Two

> 10:00. Group 2 begins in the reading corner,using oversized Houghton-Mifflin notebooks. Martha says, "Sit up straight and tall." She asks them to read the top sentence silently; then aloud. "I eat an orange for breakfast every morning." She talks about orange. "Can it mean something else?" All say, "Yes, a color." She says, "Good." This exercise is about words with different meanings in different contexts. There are six sentences, each with a word underlined.

1. It was cold outside and it was snowing.
2. I have a bad cold, so I can't go to school.

3. Tom will be the lion in the school play.
4. Every day I play games when I come home.

5. Be sure to sign your letter.
6. What does the sign on the door say?

> She has them read the sentence silently, then aloud, and then discusses with them the meaning of the underlined word in that context. E.g. Q: "What does sign mean in 'sign your letter'?" A: "Signature." Q: "What's 'signature'?" A: "Joe." Martha laughs and says, "Yes, that's your signature. It's your name." She then goes over all the underlined words, asking what the two meanings of each word are.
>
> They begin another exercise. Martha reads a sentence which has one word underlined, and then asks the students to replace the word with a synonym:
>
> 1. "I had to duck when the ball came."
>
> A: "I had to bend over .." Martha says, What about the game you love to play?" She elicits the word, "dodge."
>
> 2. "We will put on a Halloween play at school."
>
> A: "We gave a Halloween party." Martha responds, "We did, didn't we," then explains, "You can't say play, but it has to mean the same." Another child made a suggestion which was a substitute for a word other than play. Martha explains the rules again. A: "Show." Martha says, "Good. Now you're getting it."
>
> 3. "I hope my brother leaves some raisins for me."
>
> A: "Gives." "Saves." Martha says saves is probably better.
>
> (Martha: Observation 3, pp.6-7)

The first excerpt documents the nature of Martha's reading groups and her use of basal reader stories. Martha is at the center of all interactions in the reading group. Students read individually, but are expected to respond to their reading only in interactions intitiated by Martha. She does attempt to encourage their personal involvement in the reading by supplementing the comprehension questions suggested by the basal writers with questions and comments relating to students' experiences. Nevertheless, the discussion in the reading group is quite formalized with Martha asking prepared questions for the most part and students then answering those questions.

In the second excerpt, we see how Martha uses skills exercises within the reading group setting. As in the story reading excerpt, the reading group is centered around Martha and the oversized notebook which sets out the exercises to be done that day. Again, Martha encourages students to appeal to their own experiences in solving the exercises (e.g. "What about the game you love to play?"), but stays very close to the suggested exercise.

It is clear that Martha is committed to a highly structured, teacher-centered, and basal oriented curriculum. In our conversations, she expressed the belief that the 'experts' have done well in developing reading instruction materials and that she is comfortable in using what is on the market. But this is not the whole story. Beliefs which Martha expressed in our discussions, as well as some of the supplementary experiences she incorporates into her classroom, indicate that she is in fact far from comfortable in relying solely on what is on the market.

Cross-Currents

There are aspects of Martha's program which deviate from and move beyond the core curriculum discussed above. These deviations are leading her toward a less teacher-centered, and less basal-centered reading program. The ways in which Martha adjusts her program are based upon a number of beliefs. Among these beliefs, four became particularly apparent in the course of observations of her class and in conversations with her: 1) a belief in the social nature of learning, 2) a belief in building upon students' interests and experiences, 3) a belief in building an appreciation for reading and for the variety of expression which it allows, and 4) a belief in watching the student rather than the test in evaluating student progress and ability. How Martha acts upon these beliefs is demonstrated in the sections which follow.

Learning is social. That learning is social can be demonstrated in every classroom, including in those classrooms where talking among students is discouraged. Children want to discuss their ideas and their projects with each other. An instance of this occurred in Martha's class, before class began.

> A child gets crayons and begins working on an art project. He hands his picture to another student who colors something on it. The first child at first says, "No," then goes over to the second one's desk and they work on it together for a minute

> or two. Child 1 then takes it back to his desk and continues.
>
> Other students either sit at their desks or talk to each other, milling around. One child in the back of the room has begun working on his worksheets. A girl takes the large environmental print signs on the chalkboard tray and holds them up for a neighboring student to identify. He doesn't pick up on it, doesn't show any interest. She goes to another student and he plays along.
> (Martha: Observation 2, pp. 2-3)

Martha capitalizes on the students' eagerness to make a communal game out of learning. She herself enjoys group learning situations and finds that the students are not apt to become as bored as when working individually. In both reading and math, she tries to use competitive games. Even when group interaction, as part of the formal program of the day, is not ongoing, Martha's students are free to move around the room, consulting with other students, as long as Martha knows that such conversations deal with classroom concerns. Thus, while the classroom arrangement is teacher- centered, with all desks in rows facing front, the classroom in practice has a slightly different flavor.

Interests and experiences are key factors. Martha's belief that students' priorities, interests, and current knowledge are important in language learning is evidenced throughout her curriculum, in part during the period she has designated specifically as the reading period, but even more noticeably during other periods of the day. Some of the most exciting language, reading, and comprehension experiences for students occur apart from Martha's designated reading time. This is understandable, considering her committment to basal programs as the core of her reading program and the amount of time basal reader activities require. As Martha points out, it is hard to understand how to include free reading or other open-ended reading experiences within the time she has set aside for reading instruction.

Current affairs in their lives. One of the most student-centered experiences in Martha's classroom is a daily collaborative morning news session. The class as an entire group generates a brief paragraph of news items. Students volunteer information about current events in their lives and occasionally include reports of major national and international news items. The following passage is excerpted from an observation of one morning's news session:

> "Today's News" begins with Martha at the front board. She asks for a title. Randy says, "Today's News." She writes it on the board. She then asks for sentences. Randy says, "Today is Thursday, April 11, 1985."

> Martha asks for another sentence. Tim says, "It is cloudy and cold." Martha suggests they say "cool" instead. She writes <u>It is cloudy and cool</u>. She asks if anyone has heard a weather report. She walks back and forth smiling at the children. Eric suggests, "We have gym today." Jeff says, "I had baseball practice yesterday." Martha says, "Oh, great, you're on a baseball team." She writes <u>Jeff went to baseball practice yesterday</u>. She asks what the name of the team is and who the coach is. He doesn't know. Martha says, "Well, if you find out, let me know." Robert says, "My Dad's birthday's tomorrow." Martha asks, "Oh, what are you going to do?" He says, "Spank him." She writes down <u>Robert's Dad's birthday is tomorrow</u>. Darryl says he went to Boy's Club last night. Martha asks what he did there. He says, "Went to a carnival." Martha writes <u>Darryl went to the Boy's Club carnival</u>. Another student reported, "Robert, Eric, Michael and Mrs. Landis went to Taco Grande yesterday. They knew their multiplication tables." Martha asks one of the students [this role is rotated alphabetically by name] to read the whole news. He does so, fluently.
> (Martha: Observation 3, p. 1-2)

During "Today's News" sessions, students are anxious not only to share their own news, but to hear what is new in each others' lives. Martha subsequently has them copy down "Today's News" as part of their daily seat work. By seeing their own language in print and as a valued part of what goes on in school, they learn that reading and writing are experiences which they can generate and control. Reading and writing ceases to be associated only with school materials prepared by unknown others.

<u>Building on students' priorities</u>. An important issue for Martha is minimizing the low self-esteem which many mildly mentally handicapped students feel. She is sensitive to their priorites and tries to find materials and include activities which make the children feel less different than students in regular education classrooms. Four areas in which Martha builds on students' priorities are in her choice of books to use in class, her design of bulletin board displays, her inclusion of cursive writing in the special education curriculum, and her drawing on students' talents as appropriate situations arise. In our interviews, Martha shared the reasons for the decisions which she has made in these areas.

One of Martha's greatest challenges is in finding books which do not insult her students. Students are quick to complain that they are presented with materials which look like `baby' books. Their sensitivity about the simplified materials which they usually get is a continuing problem, since so few materials for MiMH classes are available. Two books in particular which Martha has found to work well with her students and which she recommends to other teachers are Vivian Bernstein's America's Story, and Health and You. Both deal with relatively sophisticated subject matter and have been well received by her students.

Martha shows the same respect for her student's concerns in her choice of bulletin board displays. One of the displays which I observed was a map of the world. Martha commented that most of the children can not identify many of the countries, but they enjoy the display nevertheless. They are glad to have the sort of subject matter in their classroom which students in the regular classrooms have.

Martha's sensitivity to her students' ever-present sense of `different-ness,' has lead her to include cursive handwriting in her handwriting instruction. She points out that while some teachers believe that cursive writing is too difficult for children labeled MiMH, she believes that it is particularly important that they learn it. By not learning cursive, her students will stand out in the future and this will result in an even greater loss of self-confidence. Morever, Martha says, students want to learn cursive writing, and therefore learn it well.

Martha further builds confidence and pride in her students by adjusting her plans when she sees that by doing so she can capitalize on their talents. One of the bulletin boards in the class was prepared by a student who is a particularly good artist. When I visited the classroom, he made a special point of showing me his work. Martha related how he saw her preparing a display on "Parts of a Plant." He asked her whether he could draw the flowers for the display and she gladly agreed. By allowing a student to contribute to a part of the classroom which is highly valued, Martha contributed to that student's perception of his own value.

In these ways, and very likely in other ways which did not arise in the course of our conversations or my observations, Martha supports those things which are important to the students in her classroom. Thus, again, despite the fact that Martha's curriculum is primarily teacher-centered, room is left for responding to student concerns. That this is the case, shows that Martha realizes that it is the whole student who learns to read and write. By incorporating some open-ended and student-centered literacy experiences into other parts of the curriculum, Martha manages to express within her classroom those priorities which her choice of reading curriculum pushes aside.

Free reading and the appreciation of reading. As this chapter's opening quote demonstrates, Martha believes that time spent reading for pleasure is very important, and she would like to devote more time to that in class. One way in which she has attempted to do this is by devoting Friday's reading time to a whole-class poetry lesson. She finds poems from a variety of sources, including published series of poems, books, and magazines. In the poetry sessions, Martha emphasizes expressive reading, comprehension of metaphors, and the definition of unfamiliar words. Following is a description of one of those sessions:

> Martha begins the reading/poetry lesson by talking about March and the wind. The poem today is about wind. Martha gives an example of today's wind blowing her into the back door of the school. She reads the poem, written on the board, very expressively, while pointing along the lines as she reads. She stops at various points during the poem to ask questions about meanings, particularly of the metaphorical expressions.
>
> The Wind
>
> I see the trees bend to and fro
> The boughs just bounce and sway -
> Signalling to other folks
> The wind has come to play.
>
> Sometimes the wind is not a friend,
> It's much more fierce, watch out!
> Tossing, tearing, spinning objects -
> Moving things about.
>
> And then as quickly as it comes
> I know it will soon cease;
> The wind becomes a gentle breeze
> The earth's once more at peace.
>
> Martha asks, "What's a bough?" then talks about what it looks like for boughs to bounce. She relates it to their experiences, pointing outside the window. Everyone looks to see the wind. "What's it mean 'Signalling to other folks?'" she asks. One child answers, "warns." "What about 'come to play?'" and gives an example of a paper blowing in the wind, running to catch it, almost getting it, and the wind blowing it away again.
>
> The students are very involved and spontaneously interact with Martha. One student tells a story about a balloon being blown away from his brother. Martha listens. She recalls to the students an incident last year when a student's paper blew away and she had to run after it. The students remember and laugh. She continues reading the poem.

> "What kind of wind is talked about which isn't a friend?" Martha asks. One child answers, "Tornado." Question: "Fierce?" Answer: "Strong." Another student comments from his own experience (couldn't hear). The students are all attentive. Another child comments on tornados. Martha responds with a confirmation of what he said. She continues asking questions regarding the meaning of the poem: Q: "Cease?" A: "Quit" "Cool down." Q: "Gentle breeze?" A: "Smooth." Q: "At peace?" A: "It's here." Martha: "No." Student:"It's quiet." Martha supports. [Students then take turns reading the poem.]
>
> Martha now holds up a xeroxed page with the poem written on it, along with an illustration, and lines below to write on .... The students are now to copy the poem and to pay attention to penmanship. She directs them to leave lines between the verses, to keep the lines as straight as possible and on the lines, and to capitalize the first word of each line of the poem. She asks for a volunteer helper to pass out the sheets. The students begin writing, sharpening pencils, getting settled in to do this assignment
> (Martha: Observation 2, pp. 3-5)

Martha is aware that this is only a partial attempt at providing broader experiences in reading for her students. She said that it would be even better to have students become involved in creating their own poems; however, she has not yet tried that. The sheet handed out today, after group reading of the poem from the board, had both the poem and an illustration provided on it. On other occasions, students create their own illustrations of the poem and copy the poem from the board. Martha knows that these weekly poetry sessions are not as open and creative as they might be. However, she does, through them, act on a desire to move beyond her present program of published readers and worksheets.

Responsive Evaluation. Martha believes that her observations of children as they learn in the classroom are of more importance in evaluating students than are tests. The Brigance, which is administered every Spring and which provides the basis for the IEP's (Individualized Educational Program), helps her in her initial placing of students into reading groups. However, she feels free to shift the students from one group to another as she sees them work in the class setting, without feeling obliged to re-test or document sub-skills in any way before doing so. Martha prefers, on the whole, evaluation based upon teacher-student interaction rather than evaluation based upon testing.

Martha pointed out that the IEP's have been used in her district's MiMH program for the past several years. Previously, instructors wrote a summary of each child's work - where they were in their books and how successful they had been in their work, and described generally the students' behavior. Martha preferred this earlier method of evaluation; while she believes that the Brigance is a good test, she is not sure that such extensive and detailed testing is necessary. Instead, she says, she believes that she can see what her students need in the course of her work with them, whether or not detailed testing is done. She acts on the basis of her informal observations, while the formal tests serve as a confirmation of those observations.

Martha's beliefs about evaluation are consistent with her responsive stance in relation to her students in other aspects of her curriculum. While she respects published materials prepared by `the experts,' she also respects her own ability to interpret students' progress and needs through her daily interactions with them.

Martha's Predicament

Despite all of the ways in which Martha takes what is basically a basal reader plus workbooks curriculum and tries to amend it in order to meet the needs she recognizes in her students, they do not add up to a substantive change in her curriculum. She continues to maintain a traditional program despite her awareness of the ways in which it fails to serve her students. Because she is not ready to move away from a basal-centered reading program, the more open-ended literacy experiences she does provide (such as "Today's News") occur outside her reading curriculum.

Martha is discontented with her reading program, but has not moved substantially in changing it. She is relatively isolated in her school, as the only special education teacher, and while she has a good relationship with her colleagues, she has no one with whom she shares her day to day doubts and insights. Her supervisor, while personally very supportive of all her teachers, is committed to a basal-centered approach to reading instruction, and therefore affirms Martha's current curriculum. She does not, however, provide a source of affirmation regarding Martha's doubts. Martha is alone, as are many teachers. That she may not be alone in fact (i.e. that other teachers may also feel that there is more they should be accomplishing in their reading programs), does not change her perception of isolation and does not change the lack of support for her growth as teacher.

AN ALTERNATIVE CURRICULUM: ANN'S CLASSROOM

In the previous section, we examined the case of a teacher who was caught in the tension between new insights and the old beliefs which they contradicted. In the absence of supportive colleagues who could legitimize and help her to explore her doubts, Martha maintained her existing curriculum and acted upon her new insights only to the extent of adding activities to her program in peripheral ways.

We will now look at the case of a teacher who found herself in an environment where her doubts about her current practices were shared and legitimized by a fellow-teacher and by a supervisor as well. In this situation, the three colleagues worked together to support each other in accomplishing a radical change in the curricula of both teachers' classrooms. We will be looking at one of these teachers, Ann, who has a primary level class of students labeled learning disabled.

Ann's Background and Movement Toward Change

Ann earned her B.A. at Hanover College in sociology and psychology. One of her psychology professors was involved in a summer camp for behavior-problematic children. While working there one summer, Ann became convinced that she wanted to teach, and, specifically, that she wanted to teach special education students. She enrolled in a Master's Degree program in special education with a specialization in learning disabilities, and since graduating has been working with students labeled learning disabled in the public school system. She is committed to her work with these children, and has no plans to move to a regular education classroom.

When she first began teaching, Ann used exclusively basal readers in her reading program. She reports that it was "a complete flop," since it was just a repeat of something in which the children had already experienced failure. She then tried other material, but wasn't satisfied. Her supervisor, Sarah Williams, suggested she read about the language experience approach. She did and became interested, but was hesitant about applying it in her own classroom. Gradually, through Williams and a fellow LD teacher in her building, Elizabeth Spencer, she became convinced enough to try.

Over Christmas vacation one year, Ann read everything she could about language experience and, upon returning to the classroom in January, shifted her entire curriculum to a language experience curriculum. She was pleased with the results and has been building on them ever since. It was the support of colleagues which gave Ann the courage --- and the opportunity --- to initiate a major shift in her curriculum. In the sections which follow, the curriculum which she has developed and which she continues to refine, is presented, first, by overviewing the entire program, and second, by looking at one day's session.

An Overview of Ann's Alternative Curriculum

Ann believes that in using the language experience approach, reading comprehension instruction is intertwined throughout the entire language arts curriculum. The curriculum is organized around units, each unit beginning with an experience in which everyone in the classroom participates together. The class then generates a story about their experience and all subsequent activities in that unit are derived from that story. Ann has developed a seven-step series of activities which are completed over a period of eight to ten days.

On the first day, an experience planned by Ann is provided for the students. Past experiences have included public library visits, cooking (e.g. making soup, making cookie dough ornaments at Christmas, and visiting the school cafeteria), self descriptions (e.g. weight, measurements, fingerprints, and descriptions of their mirror images), and exploring colors (e.g. examining prisms, and mixing paints).

After the experience is completed, the class as a group generates a list of words which are related to what they have just done. Students suggest the words and Ann, in turn, writes them on an oversized paper in front of the class. The class then divides into three small work groups. One group, working together and talking freely about what they are doing, draws pictures based on the words they have just generated.

A second group generates a story about the experience, dictating it to Ann who writes it in front of them. The third group meets with the teacher's aide and chooses the words from the story which they want to have as their personal vocabulary words for that unit. The groups rotate so that each group is involved in each of these three activities.

On the following day, the stories which the three groups have generated are used for phonics lessons. For instance, Ann may have students identify all the words in the story beginning with the cluster sh. On subsequent days vocabulary and phonics activities are pursued, all of which are based upon words from the student generated stories.

It is clear that Ann has retained many of the concerns of the traditional teacher; she is committed to a program which emphasizes vocabulary for spelling and phonics exercises, all of which isolate words from the language experience stories in which they were originally embedded. It is equally clear, however, that she has moved beyond the traditional, textbook-centered curriculum, and to that extent, Ann's current curriculum is substantially different than her previous one. Let us now look at Ann's classroom to see how her plan works out in practice.

Ann's Classroom in Action

The following passages are excerpted from fieldnotes taken during an observation of Ann's classroom on a Monday, a day when a new language experience cycle was beginning. Thus, the class was involved in an experience which was to form the basis of the rest of the class activities during that cycle. This unit is based on the experience of blowing bubbles. It is a favorite one with students and therefore Ann includes it almost every year.

> Ann is at the board in the front of the room and the students are at their desks. Ann writes the word bubble on the board and asks them to say it. She says sometimes it is spelled with a small first letter and sometimes with a large one, and writes Bubble. She explains that the experience today will be blowing bubbles.
>
> The students get their coats, row by row. Ann hands out the bubble containers by row, and tells them to wait until they get outside to open them. They all do as directed. Ann now says that they should notice certain things when they blow bubbles: how high they go, in which direction they go, how big they are, and what color they are. Mary, the teacher's aide, gives more suggestions. Ann then writes on the board the main things they are to look for: size, color, direction, how long. They all line up at the door and go out.
>
> 9:10 While blowing bubbles outside, they begin individually, but as time goes on, they go in and out of groups --- usually pairs --- comparing bubbles and bubble-making techniques. Kids pick up blowing and catching styles from each other. They begin in a fairly close area on the tarmac around the building, near the teachers, but as the activity continues they cover more ground, running across the playground and among the trees. Mary comments to me that there is unusually little talking going on (compared to most experiences, as I understand her meaning). She supposes that this is because they're involved in blowing.
>
> 9:35. They return to the classroom. Michael, the student of the week, helps Ann collect the bubble jars. Other students take off their

coats and return to their seats.

Ann now goes to the oversized note pad on the front board. She writes: "Word List - Story 16." She says, "Let's all sit up straight. What's rule #1? Pay attention," and points to it on the "Our Rules" list. She asks for words, eliciting them with specific questions: Q: "What shape is a bubble?" A: "Round." She writes this on the paper, spelling out loud as she writes, and then has students read the word with her. This pattern is continued throughout the activity. Q: "What did you use to make the bubbles?" A: "Wand." Q: "How ...?" A: "Blow." Q: "How else could you use the wand?" A: "Swing," after some prompting. Q: "What is in the middle of a bubble?" A: "Circle." Ann: "Yes, it's a circle, it's round. What's in the middle?" A (a different child): "Nothing." Ann: "No." A: "Soap." Ann: "The soap part is the part you can see." A: "Bubbles." Ann: "It's part of the bubble." A: "It's invisible." Ann: "It _is_ invisible, it's what you blow into it." A: "Air." Ann writes _air_ on the word list. Q: "What colors could you see in the bubbles?" Ann writes _colors_ on the word list. The students call out colors, one says, "a rainbow." Ann decides to just leave the word _colors_ on the list and says that each group can think of the colors they saw when they do their stories. Q: "What size were the bubbles?" A: "About that big [with a gesture]." Ann writes _size_ - _big_, _little_, _tiny_, _medium_, on the word list, picking up on suggestions by the students. Q: "What direction did they go?" She writes _direction_ on the list. A: "East and West." Ann: "Most went West." She writes _West_ on the paper. A: "Up." Ann: "Good," and writes _up_ on the list. A: "Down." Ann adds _down_ to the list. Q: "How long did the bubbles last?" A: "For a few minutes." Ann: "Some did, yes." A: "About an hour." Ann: "Not an hour, or they would still be out there." Ann writes on the paper: _how long_ - _minutes_, _seconds_. Q: "What happened when the bubbles touched the ground, or your finger, or a tree?" A: "Popped." Ann adds _pop_ to the list. She asks for other suggestions. Suggestion: _Rainbow_. Ann adds this. Suggestion: _Clothes_. Ann: "Yes, some popped when they touched clothes," but doesn't add it to the list. Suggestion: _Straight_. Ann: "Yes, some went straight." There's no room to include this alongside the other directions, so she adds it underneath the other words. Suggestion: Hooked. Ann: "Some bubbles were hooked together." She adds this.

Ann then asks everyone to look at the list, and they read through all the words together. She gives meaning clues when they hesitate: "This is what happens when -----." They read all the words. The final list turns out to be:

Word List - Story 16

soap
round
wand
blow
air
straight
hooked

colors
size - big, little, tiny, medium
direction - West, up, down
how long - minutes, seconds
rainbow

[On other occasions, the class would divide into three groups, each engaged in turn on generating stories from the wordlist.]

10:00. The group now splits into two for the spelling session, the younger group (first graders) with Ann at the vocabulary table, and the older group (second graders) with Mary at the phonics table.

Both groups are involved in choosing spelling words for this week from their word banks. Each child has a sheet of paper. When a word is suggested, Ann writes it on her paper (same size as theirs, 8 x 12) on the board and the students write it on their sheets. She suggests that they choose words of five letters or less. Each child chooses a word. Michelle chooses a word she can't read. Ann says that only words she can read can be put on the list, so she should choose another. Aaron chooses a word which has been on the list twice recently [said]. Ann says they shouldn't include it again this time. She also discourages choosing names. Michelle now chooses by, and Ann writes this on the word list. In helping Jeff choose a word, Ann steers him away from a word which she says is too long. He then chooses in. The list of five words for this group this week turns out to be: to, a, and, by, in.

> Ann now asks students to use each word in a sentence. E.g.: Ann: "A?" A: "I like a ice cream." Ann accepts this and repeats it. Ann: "And?" A: [missed] Ann: "I am wearing a red and white sweater." Student: "And blue!" They interrupt their sentence forming because they've run out of time
>
> (Ann: Observation 4, pp. 4-5)

A number of things can be noted in this day's program. Ann has established a very structured and predictable environment within which her language experience curriculum operates. She feels most comfortable with a structured environment herself, and she believes strongly that children labeled learning disabled respond well in peaceful, structured settings. Despite that priority, however, Ann has attempted to allow student initiated ideas to surface in the classroom. This occurs in story generation sessions, free writing sessions, and in group work on drawings regarding the experience. A teacher with less committment to a structured environment might go further in allowing students to direct events in the classroom according to their own interests.

Student evaluation. Ann has moved away from traditional ways of dealing with another area of her curriculum as well. While she administers the tests which are suggested for all LD classrooms [the Woodcock Reading Mastery Test, the Key Math Diagnostic Arithmetic Test, and the Brigance], she has developed her own informal method of showing students, parents, and herself the extent of the progress each student makes over the course of a year.

Ann has designed a pre- and post-test instrument dealing with handwriting, numbers, and various exercises (e.g. counting, writing in order, and adding and subtracting). The handwriting measure, for instance, requires students to write their names and addresses. Numbers exercises include a worksheet of addition problems and a worksheet of subtraction problems. At the end of the year, the students do exactly the same exercises they did at the beginning of the year. The `before' and `after' tests are shown to the students and their parents. Ann notes that her students really enjoy looking at these and laugh to see how they did things at the beginning of the year. The progress they have made is clearly demonstrated and serves as a source of pride and confidence in their abilities.

In her informal method of evaluation, as in other areas of her curriculum, Ann capitalizes on the ability which students have to reflect upon their own learning. In doing this, she makes them both more aware of and more responsible for the way in which they learn.

Ann's Solution

Ann and Martha, several years ago, were not unlike each other. Both had been prepared to teach in public schools using published materials designed by expert reading educators. Both approached their teaching seriously, with a genuine interest in the welfare of their students, and both were less than convinced of the effectiveness of their reading programs. Ann, however, was situated in a school and in a program which provided her with colleagues to think with, to question with. Ann's solution was not solely her solution, although she made it hers. As with all change and growth in thinking and practice in any field, Ann's solution evolved from inter-colleagial discussions and support. Without support and legitimization of her doubts, Ann may have continued as Martha has --- adjusting her curriculum in minor ways, never seriously reconsidering the assumptions underlying the core of her curriculum.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we have found that it is not only students who need support and encouragement in order to persevere and branch out in their intellectual life and practice. Teachers, no less, need support in order for them to value, pursue, and apply those insights which they come upon throughout their professional lives. Without encouragement from colleagues and supervisors, many valuable ideas which teachers discover in their interactions with students in the classroom go unheard, unchallenged, and unexplored. Where support is at hand, teachers can make radical changes in their programs, and can continue to thoughtfully grow and to revise their classroom practices. And, as we might hope, the beneficiaries of such situations are, in the end, the students.

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Chapter 5

READING COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTION: CAUSE FOR REFLECTION

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INTRODUCTION

My task for Volume II was to observe three different resource teachers. I assumed that a theory of reading instruction was operating in each classroom and used my classroom experience and the issues raised in Volume I as a frame for my observations. For example, Harste (1985), in Chapter 12 of Volume I, suggests that there is a paradigm shift in reading comprehension research. This paradigm shift is characterized by moves from transfer to transaction, from submission to signification and from convention to collaboration. By transfer to transaction, Harste refers to a move away from reading as a transfer of meaning from text to reader and a move toward meaning as a transactive construction involving text, readers, writers. The second major change, submission to signification, suggests that meaning-making is a multi-modal event that involves a variety of communication systems while the third change, convention to collaboration, argues for learning as a socially negotiated process. I looked for evidences of these changes in the classrooms I observed. Did the teachers and students seem to view reading as getting the meaning off the page or as constructing meaning using the clues on the page? Were teachers and students drawing, acting, and making in order to communicate their interpretations of print or was communication limited to reading and writing? Was learning a social event, a cooperative experience or did one person (the teacher) have the answer and did the students work individually to match the pre-determined `right' answer?

The researchers in Volume I found four categories - reader, text, task and processing strategies - useful for examining reading comprehension research. I found those same categories useful for examining practice. Did the teachers I observed utilize the students' background knowledge? What use was made of text factors such as story structure, genre and illustrations? Were the tasks predominately group or individual? What was the level of cognitive strategy that the classroom activities supported?

I used both these sets of questions to frame my observations. They helped me to reflect not only what I observed in other teacher's classrooms, but on what had happened in my own classroom. The opportunity to be reflexive afforded me much growth as a teacher.

In this paper, I have chosen to provide descriptions of the classrooms I observed, so that you, the reader, can share in this reflexive experience. I feel that it is through such reflection that we can maximize our effectiveness as teachers of reading.

After the classroom descriptions I have suggested some things that these teachers did or might like to try to do to improve instruction in their rooms. It is my hope that these specific suggestions, many of them taken from Volume I, will help bridge the gap between theory and practice.

I dedicate this paper to the teachers I observed. By allowing me, and now you, the reader, access to their classrooms, they have provided all of us the opportunity to step back and reflect on our own teaching.

Teacher One - Joyce

Joyce teaches elementary level students (ages 6-12) who are labeled Midly Mentally Handicapped (MiMH). She has eight students, most of whom remain in her self-contained resource room for all their academic subjects and are mainstreamed in regular classrooms for other activities such as music and physical education. Children placed in her class usually have IQ scores which range from 50-70; however, there are children in her class who have higher IQ scores. These students have been placed in the class at parental request - the parents felt that the child would benefit from the instruction. (Conversely, there are students with IQ scores in the 50-70 range who are not in Joyce's room because their parents objected to the label of handicapped. These students are in regular classrooms.)

Joyce was a regular education teacher for nine years before becoming a special education teacher nineteen years ago. She feels that she does not teach reading any differently now, in special education, than she did in regular education - except that with students in special education classes she uses a slower pace and tries more multi-sensory things.

Joyce's goal is to get children to understand what they are reading. To achieve this goal, she reads stories with the children and discusses the words as she goes along. She also labels all the objects in the room. With younger children, she uses experience charts to build sight vocabulary and believes that it is important to teach reading before teaching the alphabet. That way, she notes, "B, C, D, . .mean more." With the older children, she uses a basal reader. She prefers to use a series that is different from the one used in regular education because she wants to avoid the potentially negative impact of having one of her students reading out of the same book as a younger brother or sister.

Joyce noted that she likes the flexibility of special education. For example, she used to use a basal that was written for special education, but she found that boring. She said she "couldn't stand to teach with anything that had the same word on the page 25 times." Because she was in special education, she had the flexibility to change reading series. She also keeps her daily schedule flexible so that she can better meet the needs of her children. In contrast to many of her peers, she does not believe that children in special education classes need an extreme amount of structure.

Joyce also tries to be flexible in teaching reading strategies such as `sounding out' and learning sight words. However, she wonders at times how important what she teaches is in relation to what she wants them to learn. She has doubts that her instruction improves reading comprehension.

A Typical Language Arts Period

In a typical language arts period, many things go on at the one time in Joyce's room. Joyce and the teacher aide consistently focus their attention on directing individuals or small groups. While Joyce works with the two youngest groups of children, the teacher aide works with the oldest children. The two teachers cope at best they can with children arriving at different times and engaging in different tasks. The following is a fairly typical scenerio of what happens.

> Joyce works with the two youngest children, while Jeremy and Corey, Joyce's second group, work on a sheet on ing endings. Joyce checks the two youngest children on their sight words by using flash cards. The two youngest then go off to another table to play putting the right shapes in spaces game while Joyce works with Jeremy and Corey on names and places. Before this, Jeremy and Corey have put their ing worksheets in a basket to be checked later by Joyce. At about 10:30, Susan joins the second group. Susan seems to know what she is supposed to be doing and just naturally joins in the lesson. This group does a names and places work sheet, while Joyce returns to work with the two youngest on their coloring work sheet. . .
>
> Theresa and Shauna are working in their individual study carrels out of their Houghton Mifflin English, while the teacher aide is going over a story which Jason had done in his workbook.
>
> Aide: "First, when you write a

> paragraph, you indent, but do you indent the whole time?"
>
> After Jason answers, Theresa and Shauna are invited to join in and they all sit at the table with the teacher aide while she goes over Jason's corrections. The aide asks such questions as, "What words are capitalized in the title?" and then elaborates on the answer ("The important ones"), with, "Yes, the important ones. Little ones aren't capitalized, but you have to capitalize the first word and all the big words." She firmly tells Jason to do his paragraph over, and says, "I have shown you all your mistakes." Then she has all three students turn to p. 77 in their English book. The children read sentences and name the action words or verbs. They take turns and are reminded to follow along in the right place. They discuss how team and people are not actions words because they are nouns - persons, places, or things. The teacher aide points out that the red box is important because it has the rule - "A verb is a word which shows action."
>
> Joyce continues to work with the two youngest groups in turns. At times one of the youngest children interrupts, but Joyce quickly settles that child down and continues what she is doing with the other three children. When Theresa, one of the oldest children, comes out to show the results of her English work to Joyce, Joyce says, "You better take a look again because Miss Martin (the teacher aide) is going to yell at you." (I later ask Theresa what she had done and she said that she had forgotten to capitalize two days of the week.) As the teacher aide is going over Theresa's work, she says, "You only mis-spelled three out of the whole thing; but if the word is right there on the page, you shouldn't mis-spell it." The teacher aide also tells Theresa that the correct form of their was "t-h-e-i-r" and not "t-h-e-r-e."
>
> Joyce continues in this manner, working with Jeremy and Corey while the teacher aide does language exercises and end of passage comprehension questions with the oldest group.
>
> (Joyce, field notes, visit 2)

The following are some other typical acvtivities during language arts instruction:

1. The two youngest children work out of the "Hear, Say, See Write" workbook (Holt, Rinehart & Winston).

2. The other two groups of children work individually and independently out of their language workbooks on such things as opposites, initial consonants, cloze blanks and end of passage comprehension questions.

3. The oldest group does board work. Such board work is often done orally in preparation for seatwork from texts or worksheets. For example:

> Aide: Let's have some review. Jason, can you tell me what an action word is?
>
> Jason: Something you do.
>
> Aide: If you have an action and another verb with it, what is it? (When the children don't answer, she explains that is is the helping verb) It is usually a small word right beside the action verb, the big verb. What is the big verb also called?
>
> Jason: The main verb.
>
> Aide: Very good Jason. That's because its' usually the biggest verb and it tells what happened. (She then explains they are to underline the helping word once and the action word twice).
>
> Aide: Now what do we do when there is no helping verb? Remember we circle the verb. (A child reads the sentence, and circles planned). Good job, I think you're finally catching on.
>
> The aide follows this board work by some oral work. "I want you to make up a sentence that contains a main verb and a helping verb. I'll give you an example: `He will walk to the movie." She then calls on each child to make up a sentence. She reads five sentences and asks the students to pick out the action verb and the helping verb. After one particular sentence, the children attempt to discuss what a gerbil is, and Shauna tells about a pet mouse which she has at home. But this is quickly halted by the aide so that the children can get to work on their seat work.

> Before the children go to their seats to write five sentences with helping verbs, the aide notes, "If we have time, you're going to take you spelling test today." She then gives the children some additional directions for when they get their sentences finished. "If you have time, read on to page 82 in your book so you'll be familiar with what we're doing on Monday."
>
> Before leaving, Jason asks, "What do I have to do?"
>
> Aide: "Five sentences, then reading on the next unit."
>
> (Joyce, field notes, visit 3)

4. Joyce discusses different animals with the two youngest children as they sort pictures of animals found on farms, at zoos, etc.. Joyce encourages the children to tell her what each animal has to offer people, such as milk from cows. During such times, when older children come to ask Joyce something, they usually listen and appear very interested in what the two youngest children are doing.

5. Joyce tells the two youngest children "The Little Red Hen" using pictures. The two children join in spontaneously on such repetitive parts as "NOT I." Again, when older children come to her during this time, they seem really interested in such stories. Joyce follows the story with workbook pages on which the children retell the story by looking at pictures. These children often use crayons, scissors, etc. to draw their own pictures to tell the story. Sometimes Joyce helps with the drawing.

6. Spelling tests. The teacher or teacher aide calls out 24 words to the two older groups, giving a sentence for each word and having the children spell the word.

7. Joyce words with each group or individual in their current Holt basal readers. The oral reading of stories is usually followed by asking the children the meanings of words which had been in the stories.

8. Jason sometimes read independently from his Houghton Mifflin basal reader.

9. If children do not follow their directions in their basal workbooks, they are required to do that work over. For example, instead of putting the upper and lower case letter to go with each picture on a page, Jeremy spells out most of the words. While most of the words were spelled correctly, Joyce insists that he has to put the correct letters next to each picture.

Despite the interruptions, the talk of getting yelled at, and Joyce's getting firm with Jason to do his rewriting, there is a relaxed atmosphere in the room. For example, Stephanie asks Joyce, "Can I close my eyes while you make up a sentence?" Stephanie closes her eyes while Joyce makes up a few sentences. All the children also seem quite relaxed about bringing their work sheets out to Joyce's part of the room and putting them in a basket. (Joyce has all the children do this so that she can record the grade which she or the aide give. She also uses these sheets to check on any work which she or the aide may need to go over with the children.)

Reflection

While Joyce is currently engaged to some extent in activities which have been suggested in Volume I, the relaxed atmosphere in her classroom suggests that she has the potential to make her reading instruction much more effective. For example, Joyce allows Stephanie to create images as Joyce makes up sentences for her. Joyce could encourage visual imagery in other comprehension activities as well. As noted in Volume I, supporting the use of imagery and analogies does much to improve reading comprehension.

Joyce could also make her program more effective by using her students as informants. The older children signaled an interest in using pictures to retell a story and Joyce could capitalize upon this interest by engaging the older students in a similiar activity. At another time, the older students wanted to share their library books with her. By building in sharing time into her daily schedule, Joyce could support their interest in reading and provide a demonstration to the rest of the class that reading was an important, social experience.

Thirdly, Joyce's relaxed, flexible program would lend itself well to a curriculum in which reading, writing, drawing and thinking were all seen as comprehension activities. By focusing on meaning - making, Joyce would be able to integrate many of the skills (spelling, vocabulary, grammar) that are now taught separately. Too, by moving to such a curriculum, Joyce, her aide and her students would all be able to become participants in literacy events, rather than spectators.

These changes could be operationalized by incorporating an Authoring Cycle (Harste, Woodward and Burke, 1984) into the classroom. Such a cycle would integrate a wide variety of communication systems - language, art, drama, music - and enable teachers and students to be learners together. In this way, Joyce and all of us as teachers could become a part of the paradigm shift in reading instruction which has been suggested in Volume 1.

Teacher Two - Cheryl-

Cheryl worked as a teacher aide with Joyce in the elementary school for two and a half years before obtaining this position teaching the MiMH in the junior high. She sees eight children from grades 6-9 daily for reading instruction from 7:55 to 8:50 in her resource room. She has six of the students throughout the day for all their academic subjects and sees the other three for social studies and/or English. The reading levels of those who come to her for reading instruction range from third to sixth grade, but most are closer to third grade. All have IQ's below 80, but one whose IQ is over 90 comes to her for reading because his mother and the social studies teacher feel that he will benefit from reading instruction in the resource room.

Although what Cheryl does when teaching reading comprehension is different with each child, she usually uses the Holt basals when children first come to her because she knows they are familiar with that series from Joyce's class. The ones who can read well enough read whole stories and she has them answer questions from their basal series afterwards. She has the less capable readers do comprehension exercises from Barnell Loft and Multiple Skills series. When doing comprehension in social studies and science, the children read out loud with her. They then answer her questions, or the questions in the text. To one student who can't read a whole story, she gives sentences to read and then asks questions. For children who can no longer handle the Holt basals, she gives them Laidlaw materials. She feels that most of her students can read, but can't seem to tell her about what they have read.

Her philosophy is that all children are not going to learn the same way. When she taught regular fifth grade, she felt two large groups was sufficient for reading comprehension instruction. With special education students, she feels that it is necessary to individualize as much as possible.

She does not expect any of her students to take up reading as a hobby, but she hopes that they will learn how to read well enough to eventually hold some kind of job. She concentrates on functional literacy and also spends a lot of time of the following skills: following directions; comprehension through asking questions; and word recognition. While she thinks phonics is a good approach, she does not use it with her students all of the time because she feels `words' work better.

Cheryl does these instructional activities, because through experience, she has seen them work. She likes the Barnell Loft because she feels that these materials are structured to meet the needs of any of her students.

She doesn't have a testing program, but gives the Slossan Oral Reading Test, and the Wide Range Achievement Test (WRAT) for the benefit of parents who want grade levels. She feels that these measures don't really test comprehension so she judges the students comprehension by the skill work they do in class.

While she has done some computer inservice recently, she does not feel that she is familar enough to do much computer work with her students. Cheryl is very anxious to get the results of our comprehension research in the form of Volume I and Volume II. She thinks that there are things out there that she would like to find out about in order to improve her reading comprehension instruction.

A Typical Reading Period

When I arrive at 8:00 a.m., all the children are working quietly at their desks, while Cheryl is seated on a chair next to one child's desk (front left of room) and working individually with this child. Since I don't want to be too distracting, I remain at a table behind Cheryl for about 10 minutes to get some idea of what is going on. As Cheryl continues her lesson, I move about the room to see what the student teacher is doing and what the other students are doing in their seats. The following scenerio is fairly typical of what happens.

> The first child whom Cheryl works with reads out loud a folk tale about how a rhinoceros got its skin. As he reads, Cheryl tells him any words which he doesn't know and stops to ask questions at various points.
>
> Cheryl: "What kind of skin did this rhinoceros have?"
>
> Todd: "Smooth."
>
> Then Cheryl explains that this is an old tale about what happened to the snake when he lost his smooth skin. She next asks Todd what kind of cake he had read about earlier. When Todd is not able to answer, Cheryl asks him to think what went into the cake. Todd is then able to tell what kind of cake it was. She asks him how big the cake was.
>
> Todd: "Two feet across."
>
> Cheryl asks him to show how big that is. Todd is off on his estimate so Cheryl proceeds to relate the size to him in the context of what he knows - that a ruler is one foot, so it is twice as long as a ruler. They also discuss the fact that if it is 3 feet deep, it must be as high as a yard stick. Cheryl then says, "Why don't you read one more page and then I'll take a turn." After he reads a bit, Cheryl asks some more factual questions. They

then discuss the fact that the rhinoceros didn't have good manners, and they talk about to what kind of an animal you could teach good manners. Cheryl then takes a turn reading.

As Cheryl continues her lesson with Todd, the other children are all engaged in independent seat work. Gerry, the child in the desk at the front right of the room (near the window), is doing a page in a Barnell Loft Book called "Drawing Conclusions". He has to read very short paragraphs, and is given a choice of circling either A, B, or C as the correct answer for each paragraph.

Darren, who is in the middle of the room, is working on a folktale called "How Ologhon-Ou Sought Wisdom" in his Holt reader. Darren shows the assignment cards which he gets each morning when he arrives in Cheryl's room, and when completed, he puts on Cheryl's desk.

After noticing that two children are working on folk tales, I ask Cheryl if this is the theme for the class. She informs me that it isn't, but that there are a lot of folk tales in the Holt series.

The next child she goes to is Gerry who is just about to come to her to check his work. Cheryl mentions that Gerry is new and that he can not get used to the procedures of putting his assignment where he is supposed to and then going on with something independently. Cheryl goes over the Barnell Loft page which Gerry has been working on to help him with any mistakes which he has made.

As Cheryl goes to work with David (back right of room) on his oral reading and discussion, an announcement comes over the P. A. system. When it is finished, she asks the children if they understand what the announcement is about. When they say they don't, Cheryl explains that it is "Be Nice to Teacher Day." She sends Darren (student government representative) to get the gift for their teacher. When Darren comes back, there is quite a bit of excitment over the "model old fashion desk" which Cheryl has received. One child mentions that he has a real old fashion desk at home. Cheryl soon ends the discussion by asking the children to settle down and by telling Tommy and Todd, who are now working at the puzzle, to get to work.

David is working on a work sheet with the long vowels a, i, and o, when Cheryl interrupts him to work with him on oral reading. Each time he reads a few lines from his Laidlaw book, Cheryl discusses with him what he has read.

While Cheryl has been working with Gery and David, Todd has been working on a workbook page. It doesn't have anything to do with the rhinoceros story, but instead involves questions on a story which he had done a few days earlier.

While Cheryl works with David, I notice that Keith (child by door, back left of room) is working on a practice handwriting sheet which includes both manuscript and cursive writing. When I ask him what he is going to do next, he says, "I don't know yet." Tommy, who has been working in the middle left of the room (near the door), is now working on the jig-saw puzzle.

The student teacher mentions to me that she is cutting out butterflies as part of a display for their science bulletin board. However, she is also responsible for checking the work of Beth (in center of room, to the front left of Darren) and Peggy (in middle back of room). Beth comes to ask the student teacher something. When the student teacher rephrases the question, Beth is able to answer it. Peggy also asks the student teacher something. I'm not sure what Peggy asked, but I heard the student teacher say, "Think really hard about the questions you just read." This seems to satisfy Peggy and she goes back to her desk.

Cheryl explains to me that at one point Tracy (the student teacher) was working with Darren on science because he is going to have a science test in his regular class later that day. She says that Darren is her most capable reader, while David is having the greatest difficulties.

As I am leaving at 8:50, I notice that Cheryl begins to talk informally with some of the children before their next class, social studies. For example, Cheryl explains fantasy

> to Beth by saying something realistic can really happen whereas fantasy is usually not real. She later informs me that she tries to touch base as many children as possible, about their everyday concerns.
> (Cheryl, field notes, visit 2)

The following are some other activities which occur during a typical reading period:

1. Cheryl works with two children together on stories from Reader's Digest Skill Builders.

> Cheryl: "How did the dog help catch the steer?" "What else did the dog do?" (When they talk about cornering the steer), "Were they in a room like this, with corners?"
>
> This is followed by a discussion that because the steer was outdoors in an open space everyone had to help "corner" it.
>
> Cheryl then asks, "How did grandfather feel?" They discuss the fact that he felt good because the steer would not be extinct. Next, Cheryl says, "We have one more little story to do." They then move on to another story.
> (Cheryl, field notes, visit 1)

2. Children work individually and independently on such workbook, worksheet and text activities as:

   a. using y as a vowel
   b. tell whether statements are true
   c. find y words in ABC order
   d. write the ly words in ABC order
   e. dictionary skills
   f. finding long o words
   g. cloze context clues work
   h. 3 ways to say vowel sound in put
   i. future time
   j. phonics (Modern Curriculum Press)

3. The children read silently whole stories from their Holt basal readers and do the workbook pages which go with them.

4. Two children play computer games which involve such things as making simultaneous decisions about colors and shapes.

Thus during a typical reading period, the focus is on individualized instruction as much as possible. While Joyce or the student teacher work with the whole group during social studies and science, questions are still directed at individuals; the students do not interact socially.

Reflection

Like Joyce, Cheryl is already doing some of the things suggested in Volume I. For example, she uses the analogy of the ruler to help Todd realize how wide the cake would be. However, Cheryl's major drawback to becoming involved in the current paradigm shift seems to be that her genuine concern for individualizing instruction has caused her to overlook how much teachers and students can learn from each other. For example, two individuals were working independently on different folk tales and there are also a number of folktales in their Holt basal series. This could have led to some interesting group activities on folktales. Such activities may also have helped Beth understand more the concepts fantasy and realistic. By working together, Cheryl and her students might come to view the terms fantasy and realistic as relative to the context of the situation and also discover that some people have fantasies about things which are very real. She would find teaching more rewarding if she would be just as much a learner as her students. Such activities would help both teachers and students understand more about themselves and the world in general.

I think that Cheryl will also find that children would learn much more from cloze activities if engaged in group discussions. Currently, her students are engaging individually in cloze exercises without discussion of responses. More interesting ways to use cloze are discussed in Chapter 8 of Volume I. Through social interactions, students could be encouraged to discuss reasons for their cloze responses. They could also create their own cloze passages by pretending that an familiar word is deleted. They could then attempt to fill in the unfamilar word from their prior experiences.

In Chapter 8 and throughout Volume I you will see that there are many alternatives to the end-of-story-comprehension questions which Cheryl has been focusing on. As I have suggested before, Cheryl has begun to do some of these. Besides using the ruler to help Todd understand the width of the cake, she encourages Todd to think what went into the cake in order to determine what kind of cake it was. Cheryl also tries to help Todd and Gerry visualize why it was difficult to corner a steer in the outdoors by using the analogy that a room has four corners. Everyone had to help corner the steer because the open space did not have four corners. Teachers and students could expand on the above type of activities by using images, illustrations, metaphors, drama, TV, diagrams, flowcharts, previews and summaries. The current paradigm shift suggests that such activities build on students' existing knowledge, and are greatly enhanced when learners are involved in social interactions.

I hope that when you reflect on Cheryl's, Joyce's and your own classroom instruction, you will realize, as I have come to realize, how important it is to remember that learning is social. For example, you don't need to wait until you know more to use computers with children. You can learn to use computers with them. If you examine some current word processing programs, you will realize that you and your students could engage in very worthwhile writing experiences which would be enhanced by reading, discussing, thinking, etc. Then such experiences can be made even more meaningful and functional by engaging in activities that have purposes beyond learning how to use computers. For example, you and your students could engage in such projects as writing school newspapers, making books, etc.. To foster the social nature of learning it is necessary to have activities which are open ended and which encourage social interactions.

Teacher Three - Kevin

Kevin is a junior high teacher of those labelled emotionally disturbed. Kevin does not feel that he directly teaches reading because some of his students take a remedial course in reading. However, he feels that reading gets integrated into his content area teaching.

There are nine students whom Kevin or his teacher aide see individually. Kevin provides content area instruction on a one to one basis. He has one student, Fred, for four periods of the day. The other two periods that student is in adaptive music and adaptive gym with most of Cheryl's students. The eight other children in the program are in Kevin's room between one and two periods a day. Kevin assists his students with their regular class work - both in trying to keep them out of trouble and in helping with their content area materials.

Kevin feels that comprehension is very important in content area instruction. However, before he begins to worry about instruction, he feels that creating trust and establishing a good working relationship with his students is important. Then, since most children find it difficult to handle the content in five or six periods of regular class per day, he does not add additional content. He helps them with the content materials from their other classes by focusing on study and organizational skills.

However, he does provide the content materials for Fred whom he has four periods a day. He gives grades only to this student. Kevin presents materials which he feels Fred is capable of handling and uses a traditional percentage system.

A Typical Content Area Period

When I arrive in the very spacious bright room at 8:50 a.m., Kevin's teacher aide is doing some work at her desk. She tells me that Kevin will be back shortly and informs me that she does most of the remedial things. When Kevin arrives, he notes that usually he would be doing English at this time, but had changed to Social Studies because he felt that there would be more reading comprehension instruction to observe.

While we talk, Fred, the child whom Kevin is going to be working, is working on a large map which he has made. Every now and then Fred interrupts to ask something, such as "Can I make a scale of miles on my map?" Kevin assures him that he can later and that he will have lots more time to work on his map. He then helps Fred put the map away.

As the Social Studies lesson begins, Kevin is sitting at the table on one side of Fred and I am sitting at the table on the other side. Kevin begins by reading the title of the chapter "Exploration of North America" as Fred looks on. He then proceeds to present Fred with a preview of what they are going to be doing. He has Fred look through the sections of the chapter which they are to cover in order to tell him "what kinds of topics we are going to be exploring." Kevin asks, "What do you think the chapter is going to be about?"

Fred: Cortez, France.

Kevin: Are there any other European Countries?

Fred: Poland and England

Kevin: Look, we'll take turns to get through the story.

Before they read, Kevin continues the preview, pointing out the sections which they will be doing: A. New vocabulary words; B. People and places; and C. Map work. Kevin asks, "Fred, what do you think you will have to do with the map?

Fred: Find places.

Kevin: What will you do with the chart?

Fred: Find information.

Fred begins reading and Kevin tells Fred to take the pencil out of his ear. He reminds him, "We talked about that in order to earn your points."

Fred takes out the pencil and says, "OK."

When Fred skips a line while reading, Kevin goes to get him a marker which Fred then uses under each line of print to keep his place. Kevin also reminds Fred of his points, "Remember, you have to have good posture for those points."

After Fred finishes reading, Kevin asks him the following three factual questions:

What were some of the goods which were exchanged?

Where did they get them from?

What were most explorers after in the new world?

Fred answers all three questions easily, and for the last question he asks Kevin, "Is siver valuable?"

Kevin: Yes.

Fred: Is gold more valuable?

Kevin: Yes, Why is gold more valuable?

Fred: Color.

Kevin: Gold is more rare. Do you know what rare means?

Fred: Not very much of it.

Then Kevin reads the next section. After he finishes, he asks Fred, "Do you think finding the ocean was as important as finding gold?"

Fred: No.

Kevin: But why would the discovery of the ocean be important?

Kevin probes more and when Fred can not answer, Kevin adds: "When they found the Pacific Ocean they realized that the world is much bigger than they thought."

Kevin then asks about another explorer who was looking for a fountain of youth. Fred suggests that he was looking for it because the Indians told him about it.

Kevin asks what Coronado was searching for. When Fred can not tell him, Kevin explains that because of what the Indians told him he was "searching for a city of gold."

Fred reads the next section. Then Kevin comments: "We finished our Spanish Explorers. I'll read about the English Explorers, and I'll let you read about the Dutch."

After they both read, there are more questions.

At one point, Fred expresses a keen interest in palm trees. Kevin notes to me that Fred loves palm trees and continues the lesson.

Kevin: "Sir Francis Drake, what was he looking for?" Fred doesn't know the answer, Kevin probes by discussing that the Spanish ships were loading up with gold. He then asks: "What do you call people like Drake?"

Fred: Pirates.

Before the lesson is over, Kevin tells Fred the questions which he will have to answer on the work sheet. There is also some discussion of why Henry Hudson could not get through the passage way to China and India because of ice. I, a Newfoundlander, mention about the icebergs around Newfoundland. Kevin mentions to Fred that he had now seen a real "Newfie," and Fred is interested that he had met someone from a place which he had recently identified on the map.

The bell rings for the next class at 9:45.

> Before leaving, I ask about the point system. Kevin tells me that this is a behavior modification which has been set up jointly by the school and the group home in which Fred lives.
>
> (Kevin, field notes, visit 2)

Other activities which Kevin and his aide involve students in during content area periods are:

1. "Helping verbs" from Basic Skills in English books.

2. Verifying things which they talk about in social studies or do in science.

3. Making things, such as light weight boats, for science projects. For example, Fred made maps by using the overhead projector.

4. Activities from Keys to Spelling Mastery (Economy). For example, for Monday to Thursday Fred does a page each day and on Friday he has his test.

5. Helping students to define terms which come up in content area reading. For example, when Fred asked what a bronco was, Kevin explained it in the context of a rodeo. Fred said, "Oh, a wild horse."

During a typical content area period in Kevin's room, there is much attention on previewing and using the text to verify information. Both Kevin and his aide have plenty of time to go over the content which their students are required to cover so that they can help them cope with such materials in regular classes.

Reflection

While Kevin involved Fred in using previews, maps and charts, a major drawback to Kevin becoming involved in the current paradigm shift is the organizational practice of seeing students individually. I feel sure that other students and teachers would learn much from Fred's interest in maps. As well, Fred could learn much about previewing through discussing with teachers and other students the best way to go about such previews.

I also think an examination of our research will help Kevin see that study strategies can be enhanced without so much teacher dependency. Busch, in Chapter 6 of Volume I, suggests how students can be taught how to learn for themselves . She suggests schema-building strategies in which learners high-light their prior knowledge and generate key concepts for themselves. She describes this in a strategy called "Schema Mapping". I think Fred would enjoy doing this with other students because a map is drawn illustrating the important points in relation to the key concepts. He would enjoy sharing his map with other students because during activities it becomes obvious that more than one concept can be highlighted and thus there is appreciation for other viewpoints. I'm sure Joyce, Cheryl and Kevin and all other teachers will find Busch's other schema-building strategy lessons most useful. The ones which I though most useful were: 1. ERRQ-ESTIMATE, READ, RESPOND, QUESTION; 2. ARMS --ANTICIPATE, READ, MAP, SUMMARIZE; 3. TEXT ENCOUNTERS OF THE PREDICTING MIND; 4. MAKE YOUR OWN ADVENTURE; 5. USING CONTEXT TO DEVELOP MEANING; and 6. DEBATE. Dahl and Roberts in Chapter 8, and Heine in Chapter 9 of Volume I also offer some ways to make use of background knowledge.

I think that it is easiest to see the worth of such strategy lessons if you think about comprehension in terms of the four categories (reader, text, task and processing strategies) which have been used in the research in Volume I. Rowe in Chapter 4 of that volume suggests that research has been putting too much emphasis on the text and task. I think that it is obvious that classroom instruction has also focused too much on these external factors. The new paradigm is focusing more on the reader and processing strategies. There is much concern for transactions among learners using various processing strategies in various social contexts.

CONCLUSIONS

I have kept my REFLECTION section brief for my aim was to get you, as reader, started on your reflections. Since I found Volume I and the Classroom Observations useful in improving my reading comprehension instruction, I think you too, will find the combination of Volumes I and II useful. I encourage you to use both volumes and share your reading, thinking, and reflecting with others. It has been through such processes that I now keep my instructional practices more in line with what I believe about reading comprehension instruction.

None of these teachers provided sufficient opportunities for students to be in the presence of other language users. Teachers need to discuss and negotiate with students what it is they want to learn and how they can come to better understandings through sharing their thinking with others. Because all three of these teachers have control over what and how they teach, each has the potential to have their students see demonstrated, experience, and come to value what real readers, writers, listeners and speakers do to increase their understanding of their world.

It appears that much can be done to improve the current state of reading comprehension instruction. Our research in Volume I and Volume II is an attempt to improve reading comprehension instruction for both special education and regular students. This research further suggests that the needs of these students are no different than those in regular classrooms, or indeed any learners. All learners need opportunities to interact socially in order to seek better understandings.

Because the teachers I observed were so anxious to get the results of our research, I feel confident that they will make use of it to improve their reading comprehension instruction, and indeed all their instruction. As well, I feel that anyone who reflects on these observations and their own instruction will truly appreciate what Volume I and Volume II have to offer for improving instruction. I hope the questions which I pose in the Introduction have assisted you in your reflections. They have certainly helped me.

I feel confident that when teachers make use of our research, we will all move in the direction of the paradigm from transfer to transaction, submission to signification, convention to collaboration. That is the task which we have to deal with now - How best to implement instructional strategies based on the reflections gained from Volume I and Volume II. We invite you to assist us with this task by sharing your reflections with us and with each other.

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Chapter 6

The Value of Reflexivity

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INTRODUCTION

Our research has suggested that teacher beliefs determine curriculum and that curricular change begins when teachers examine the contexts of instruction. Then, with support from peers and supervisors, teachers operationalize their insights as curricular change. To exemplify this process, this chapter focuses on Susan, a teacher in a primary grades classroom for children labeled learning disabled, who engages in a continuous spiral of examination, change and re-examination. Her ability to be reflexive - to step back, reflect on the language learning process in general and upon her curriculum in particular, is evidenced by the changes she has made since she began teaching ten years ago and by the changes she is anticipating in the future. We hope that readers will use this chapter as we have - to reflect upon language learning beliefs and teaching methods. We believe that it is only through this type of experience that we as educators can truly grow.

SUSAN'S TEACHING: YESTERDAY AND TODAY

Susan teaches in an inner city school in a fairly large urban community north of Indianapolis. She has been teaching school for ten years, three years as a regular fourth grade classroom classroom teacher and seven years in her present position as a LD primary grades teacher. For six of those years Susan followed the reading methods suggested by her college professor and teaching. However, Susan gradually came to believe that the publisher's materials she used, such as Merrill Linguistic Readers and the Barnell Loft Basal Series, did not help her students become better readers. She began to think about how her children learned to read and to question the hierarchial beliefs the publisher's materials followed. Susan also observed her students and reflected on their struggles with print. In commenting on this process, she noted.

> I decided that we read, as adults, for meaning -not for sounds - so our goal in reading-even with beginning readers - should remain the same. Students should begin reading instruction to read for meaning, not read for sound. So I rejected my years of phonics emphasis and now only refer to phonics, when appropriate, in spelling instruction."
>
> (Susan, personal communication)

With this new perspective, Susan began to investigate alternate approaches to teach reading. As a result of her research and with the support of her LD supervisor, she began to experiment with the language experience approach. At the time, Susan felt that the language experience approach was the best available alternative as it gave her a more meaning-based program. Her LD supervisor, who had studied with Dr. Russell Stauffer, one of the founders of the language experience approach, was enthusiatic and supportive. Over the past four years, Susan gradually made the transition from traditional methodologies (language is learned in a hierarchical manner) to the language experience method (language is best learned when the text is student generated). Susan commented that this transition has not been easy. She had to reject her previous years of teaching and beliefs in order to move into a new belief system and, in addition, her new beliefs and methods have often sometimes rejected by other teachers. She often feels alone.

Still, Susan continues to question her beliefs about how children learn language. She is continually stepping back from the teaching situation and trying to understand the language process. Just as she was uncertain about how to move from teaching reading by sound/letter relationships to using larger segments of language (words and sentences), she is now uncertain on how to foster reading comprehension in her program. She believes that reading is a comprehension process from the very beginning and no longer believes that reading begins with letter naming and word calling; however, she is unclear on where to go next with her instruction. Her current program is centered around word recognition but she is questioning this emphasis and trying to find ways to improve reading comprehension instruction.

Susan's Classroom: A Language Experience Description

Susan frequently groups her students by ability, although she notes, "not always - it depends - because a group of 3 or 4 with low expressive language can't generate much of a story." During her language arts instruction period of nearly two hours, her three groups have a chance to rotate to the three activities designated by Susan as her reading program: 1) reading, 2) word recognition, and 3) spelling. As Susan explains,

> Spelling is built in every day. The words are given to me by the students each Monday and are selected by each student from his Word Bank Box. The Word Bank Box words are the words from each story. Each day different assignments are centered around these spelling words. They use them in sentences, locate them in a dictionary, etc.
> (Susan, personal communication)

A typical situation found in Susan's reading program would find Susan working with one group at the reading table; the second group working with the aide, Nancy, at the word recognition table; and the third group at their desks working on their individual spelling assignments. Approximately 20 to 30 minutes are needed to complete each activity.

A description of Susan's highly structured two week format using the language experience approach follows.

First Week

Monday - Susan initiates the topic, e.g. food groups, to the entire class and provides concrete examples. These examples, such as items from the milk group, encourage students to discuss what they know about the topic. In addition, teacher questions help the students to elaborate on their knowledge. From this discussion the students generate a list of vocabulary words that Susan places on the blackboard. These words later become the nucleus for generating stories in their reading groups as well as provide activities for individual assignments.

After this discussion the students are divided into three groups. The first group dictates their story to one of the teachers. Although Susan recognizes the option of writing on the blackboard, she feels this is "too cumbersome and time consuming of a task", instead, the student-dictated stories are written by the teacher in a notebook and later typed double-spaced on a primary typewriter. The other two groups work on their individual assignments. These assignments provide the students with specific skills activities, such as taking an assorted box of letters and forming these letters into vocabulary words.

Tuesday - Each of three reading groups is called to the reading table by Susan and given a typed copy of the story they had dictated the day before. Susan asks each member of the group to read the story while the other members follow along, pointing to each word. During the oral reading Susan 1) records the reading of the student on a copy of the same story by using a technique adapted from the Informal Reading Inventory (IRI), 2) stops the reading when it seems someone is lost, and 3) helps the reader, primarily through the use of contextual clues, to understand an unknown word. For example, she reminded Peter that he skipped a word, that he said "then" instead of there, and told him "It's not a slope but the slope." At the end of Peter's reading

Susan told him he had done a good job. (It should be noted that during this time word recognition is emphasized and there is no reading comprehension instruction given). After everyone has read the story aloud, they place their story in their reading folder and return to their seats. Meanwhile, the two other groups remain at their seats and work on their individual spelling assignments. The aide, Nancy, is available to assist them when they need help with their work.

Wednesday-The format follows closely the one used the day before. The major difference is that Susan calls the students of each group one at a time to come to the table and read the story to her. This way the students don't hear the story before they have to read it. However, when the first student is finished, he or she remains at the table. This provides the first student the opportunity to hear the second reader. This process is repeated until all four members of the group have read the story.

Thursday -This day is much like Wednesday, in addition Susan and Nancy have written all of the words from the dictated stories on 2 x 3 cards to provide the students an opportunity to see the word in isolation. Each student is given a pack of these cards and the groups are called one at a time to join Nancy at the word recognition table. During this time they play a game called "I Got It!" This game involves each member of the group placing their set of cards face up in front of them. When Nancy calls out the word, the first one to point at the word and call out, "I Got It!" gets to take the card. The student who has all his cards turned over first at the end of the game wins 10 cents, which can be used to purchase school supplies at the classroom store. Nancy also uses a second game, "Whoever Gets It", which also reinforces word recognition. In this game Nancy shows the word on the card and the students have to name it correctly. Once again, the student who names the most cards correctly wins 10 cents. Susan feels her students benefit from such competition.

Friday - The format follows the one used the day before.

Second Week

Monday
Tuesday

Wednesday-There is no reading of the story that was generated the week before; instead, emphasis is placed on recognition of the words used in the story. This is accomplished by calling individual students to both the reading table (Susan) and word recognition table (Nancy) for the purpose of giving word checks. For example, Nancy calls Jesse up to the word recognition table and reminds him to bring his word bank box with him. Once at the table, Nancy tells Jesse that she expects him to call out the words from his groups' most recent story. She does not want him to "take time and sound them out," instead she wants him to "say the words quickly." During the course of going over the 30 words used in the story, Jesse has trouble pronouncing a half dozen of them. Those words he is able to pronounce correctly are placed in the record book and the next person in Jesse's group is called to the table. Students remain at the table after completing the task. When all the members of the group have had their individual word checks, "I Got It!" and "Whoever Gets It!" are played with each group. Meanwhile, the students who are not participating with the teachers work on their individual spelling assignments, such as copying five spelling words from their story five times each or taking a box full of individual letters and combining these letters to make the spelling words.

Thursday -Susan asks each student to read silently the story that their group dictated nearly two weeks ago and then hands out comprehension questions she has developed. She asks a student in the group to read a question aloud and encourages the students to find the answer in the text and then write it next to the question. After one group completes this task, another group is called to repeat the same process. During this time the other students are working on their individual assignments, continuing their individual word checks or playing word recognition games with Nancy.

Friday - The format follows closely the one used the day before, however, Susan tries to get the students to read and answer the same comprehension questions without as much help from her.

The Role of Reading Comprehension

As mentioned earlier, Susan moved from a traditional method of teaching reading (e.g. basal reader and workbook) to the language experience approach. By continually stepping back and examining her role as teacher and by being willing to use her students as informants, Susan has been pleased with the changes that she has noticed (i.e. more positive attitude toward reading, greater interest in reading materials; increased understanding of how to use context to understand unknown words). However, Susan feels that "reading comprehension is the weakest part of instruction." While Susan is currently developing comprehension questions based on the student's generated texts, she is doing this out of frustration. She feels that what she is doing is not promoting reading comprehension to the fullest extent. She is looking for better ideas and strategies that will help her students derive meaning from the text. Through her continuous questioning of what she is doing to assist her students with reading comprehension, she has been searching for the answers that will unlock the doors of understanding. In a recent communication, Susan noted:

> As a result of our discussion, I am examining the whole word recognition segment of my program. At the end of the year we took each student through his Word Bank Box. Those who did poorly reading the words in isolation were then given their reading folders and told to read each story aloud. We found that they missed only 2 or 3 words out of all stories for the year, but when asked to read the same words in isolation they missed 50 or more words! So I am seriously wondering why I should even have them do any words in isolation. The only reason I can come up with is that at Case Conference time I can give a percent of correctly read words in isolation! Big Deal!. . .
>
> Also, since our discussion, I'm offering more opportunities for silent directed reading instruction. When my students read out loud they stumble over words and are just reading words. At the end of the year I gave them different passages and insisted on silent reading. I know they miss lots of words - but I found that they could still answer the directed questions! So truthfully I'm re-evaluating AGAIN my whole approach and intend AGAIN through trial and error, to re-vamp my reading instruction dramatically and emphasizing varying levels of comprehension within the framework of Language Experience.
>
> (Susan, personal communication)

At this time Susan doesn't have the answers but through continued reflexivity she hopes and believes that the answers will come.

The Reading and Writing Connection

Another component of Susan's language arts program is writing. Although she likes the idea of using creative writing with her students, she remains uncertain of how it fits into her language arts program. She feels her writing program is done by `a hit and miss' technique with no regular times set aside. As with her reading instruction, Susan has questioned the traditional methods of teaching writing. She no longer believes that reading must come before writing. Susan now views reading and writing as having a `parallel development',that is, that one does not come before the other. Initially Susan wondered how her "students could write when they couldn't write, couldn't spell, and couldn't read." One day four years ago she decided to let them write whatever they wanted as long as they could read it. In the beginning everyone said they couldn't write. Over time, they were able to "write once they were reassured and once they knew their papers wouldn't be marked up." In the beginning Susan "encouraged a line or two and by the end of the year they were writing more. Ordinarily, they are able to read what they're writing which is often a string of consonants (vowels are not their strength)." She also found that by allowing invented spellings - and she doesn't know how this happens - they do start spelling the words right. By being able to step back and think about writing, Susan was able to change her beliefs and teaching strategies concerning writing. For example, when given this paper for feedback, Susan replied:

> "We are now writing every day. I put up a story starter each day and the students write each day and then put these in a writing folder. This change came from our discussions!"
>
> (Susan, personal communication)

However,just as with reading, she continues to raise questions about how children learn to write. She is continually questioning what she is doing with her instruction and searching for ways to improve it. She would like to implement a structured writing program but is uncertain on how to go about setting one up and getting the needed support to do so.

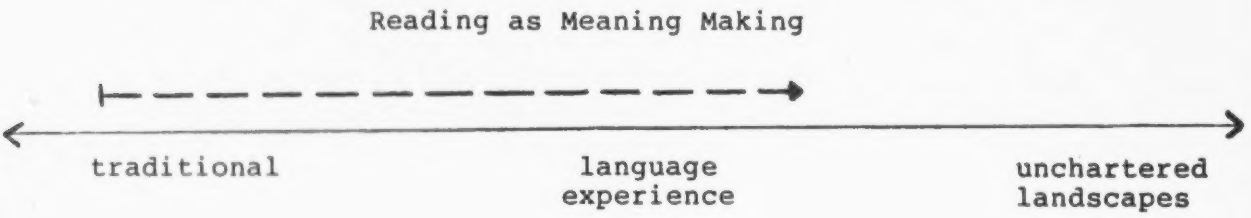
Evaluation

Susan uses the pre and posttests of the Woodcock and Harris Jacobsen Wordlists to help her monitor students' progress. Although these tests have shown overall improvement for her students, Susan questions the use of any standardized instrument. She feels that her students normally don't do well on tests. She prefers to evaluate her students by observing their reading and prefers to evaluate her students by observing their reading and writing behaviors. She is more concerned with the subtle improvements that *no instrument can pick up*. As Susan notes:

> If a student at the first of the year sees an unknown word and just says I don't know what it is, falls apart, and makes no attempt at figuring out the word - and then later in the year they see an unknown word and they know how to go about figuring it out (yet not correctly) by reading before and after the word - now that's progress.
>
> (Susan, Field notes)

CONCLUSION

Susan's reflexivity, her ability to step back and think about the language learning process and the methods of instruction that would promote, not hinder, language learning, has been demonstrated in this chapter. This reflexivity has led to changes in her belief systems and teaching methods. As a result, Susan has been able to grow in her understanding of the language learning process. Susan's reflexivity allowed her to question the traditional beliefs and methods and, by doing so, demonstrate growth. On a language learning continuum, Susan's growth could be conceptualized as follows:


Reading as Meaning Making

It is through reflexivity and questioning that Susan will continue her travel on the language learning continuum.

Susan's reflexivity is an essential characteristic of any teacher. It represents a concern for her student's welfare and her constant search for the answers that will help her provide the proper instruction for her students. As long as teachers question what they are doing in regards to language learning, they too can join Susan and grow on the language learning continuum.

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SECTION III

EXAMINING MATERIALS

Chapter 7

Special Education Materials: Patterns, Problems, and Potential

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INTRODUCTION

We have seen in earlier chapters that what is taught and learned in classrooms concerning literacy depends to a great extent on teacher beliefs and the availability of teacher support. Because teachers depend on `experts', materials produced by these `experts' play a strong role, too, in what is taught and learned and what standards are set for literacy in classrooms. Therefore in to get a firm grasp on what is going on in education classrooms, we must better understand the materials used in them.

A study of the materials used in special education classrooms is a necessary complement to case studies of special education classrooms since little is known about the nature and use of special education materials. We do know that tests can and often do shape the curriculum, that 95% of classroom instruction is textbook based, and that publishers often determine both the instructional materials used in classrooms and the nature of testing (Resnick & Resnick, 1985). We also know that assumptions about values, teaching, and learning are not only built into many curriculum materials, but are significant aspects of them and are often problematic (Eraut, Goad, Smith, 1975).

We do not, however, know much about the characteristics of special education materials such as how they are selected, the learning theories underlying them, their objectives, dominant orientation, or patterns of use. We do not know about the diversity of materials or the range of tones and stylistic devices used in them. Neither do we know about the tasks connected with the materials -- the level of cognitive processes demanded of students, the types of tasks or the forms of student responses requested by the materials.

The focus of this study, then, is special education materials and the intent is to provide information through description, analysis, and reflection that will help publishers improve special education materials and help adoption committees and teachers make better selection decisions. We also hope that this information will encourage teachers to examine their beliefs about literacy, learning, and teaching.

The decision to investigate special education materials was spurred by my previous investigation of content area materials used in regular classrooms and personal experience with `special' materials designed for poor readers. I bring to this study a perspective and set of assumptions growing out of my prior experiences as teacher, graduate student, and researcher in the areas of language, reading, and composition.

PART I: DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The design consists of three major parts: 1) a description of selected, commonly used materials; 2) an analysis of selected materials, field notes, and teacher interviews; 3) and a discussion of problems and potentials of the materials currently used, with suggestions for improving future materials.

The data is both quantitative and qualitative. The data is derived from 2 major sources: a taxonomy patterned after the one that was used for the meta-analysis of reading comprehension research in the first stage of this federally comprehension research project, (see Appendix B) and a scheme for analysis of curriculum materials used in Sussex, England (Eraut, Goad, Smith, 1975). Additional components were added as necessary. The taxonomy consists of profiles which provide general information about the materials, range of materials, text characteristics, task factors, and learner factors. The taxonomy uses a quantitative approach and multiple coding system for the dominant and important non-dominant characteristics of the materials. This was done in order to portray a sense of proportion, frequency, balance of emphasis and a sense of multiple functions and characteristics. The profiles are based on a list of descriptors and a count of assignable units associated with each descriptor. The result is close an attention to detail which forces the analyst into a much greater familiarity with the material than when using a purely qualitative taxonomy.

The materials examined were a set of documents from a representative sample of types of special education classrooms, school and cooperatives/districts. The documents consist of elementary and junior high instructional and testing materials and include commercial, teacher-made, and student-written materials. A set of 50 documents (2 testing, 24 elementary instructional materials, and 24 junior high instructional materials) were examined. The documents were sometimes a single page such as a worksheet and sometimes a set of papers such as a series of similar worksheets or student writings. The information from the documents was supplemented with information from field notes, teacher/special education director interviews, teacher-developed Individual Education Programs (IEPs), and publishers' descriptions of materials. The documents (with a few exceptions) consisted of materials that we observed being used in the classroom. Thus the analysis is of special education materials in use.

PART II: MATERIAL DESCRIPTION

A Close Look At One Test and Two Programs

This section describes, in depth, three materials used in special education classrooms. The first is a testing material, the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills (Curriculum Associates, Inc.) used in the elementary grades. The second is the Chicago Mastery Program, an instructional program used in grades K-6. The third is a program titled Caught Reading (The First Time, The Second Time, etc.) (Quercus Corp.) used by junior high teachers with students labeled learning disabled. These materials were commonly used in the classrooms selected for this study as well as other special education classrooms.

The Brigance Inventory

The Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Basic Skills is designed for use with students whose achievement is between kindergarden and sixth grade level. When a child scores at or above grade level in a given skill, he or she is assumed to be able to advance and perform successfully at the next grade level. The author states that the Inventory can also be used for junior high and secondary students who need basic skills instruction at the elementary level. A companion test has been designed for students beyond the sixth grade level, the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Essential Skills. The 1985 edition combines the two levels into one test covering kindergarten through grade eight.

The purposes given by the author for the test are:

1 - to assess basic readiness and academic skills in key subject areas (reading, language, arts, and math) from K-6 grade levels,

2 - to define instructional objectives in precise terms in order to effectively measure a student's performance in a given subject area (behavioral objectives),

3 - to determine the student's level of achievement, readiness to advance or need for reinforcement,

4 - to serve as a guide to the teacher in the design of an instructional program to meet the specific needs of the student.

Each skill area is arranged in a developmental and sequential hierarchy. The claim is made that the comprehensiveness, simplicity, and adaptability of the Inventory make it a practical resource for all school personnel involved in instructional planning and evaluation at the K-6 level. Suggestions or directives are given for its use by regular classroom teachers; principals and curriculum specialists; psychologists and diagnosticians; special help teachers; and evaluation teams. The author explains that the Brigance

Inventory of Basic Skills is useful for placement and individual assessment of new students, sequencing of instruction, developing group tests to measure specific objectives, and developing class objectives. He notes too, that the Brigance has simplified and integrated assessing/diagnosing and record keeping, is comprehensive and compact - thus eliminating the need for separate assessment instruments - and is criterion referenced with results in performance terms, making for ease of communication with parents and school personnel. The grade level notations in the Student Record Book on preciseness of assessment information and instructional objectives are said to facilitate communications with regular classroom teachers for more effective mainstreaming. Appendix B offers procedures to assess handicapped children and a model for developing the individualized education program (IEP). Para-professionals (instructional aides with minimum training and supervision) can administer the test but not interpret results. Grade level placement requires 15 minutes, while the comprehensive assessment for IEPs takes several sessions. The test, which is usually given individually, is divided into four major sections with subsections for Reading, Language Art, and Math. Each section has a number of basic skills tests. The relative emphasis given to each section and subsection is indicated by the percentage of total pages devoted to it. This information is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.

Percentage of Total Pages for Major and Sub Sections of the Inventory

Section/Subsection	Percentages	
	Major	Sub
Readiness	14%	
Reading	36%	
Word Recognition		07%
Reading (Oral)		04%
Word Analysis		20%
Vocabulary		05%
Language Arts	14%	
Handwriting		01%
Grammar/Mechanics		03%
Spelling		04%
Reference Skills		07%
Math	36%	
Numbers		09%
Operations		11%
Measurement		16%
Total =	100%	100%

We can see from Table 1 that Reading consists of slightly little more than one third of the test (36%) and that the Word Analysis subsection of Reading has the largest percentage of total pages (20%) as compared to other subsections. When all the subsections of Reading that do not involve the actual reading and comprehending of texts are combined, we see that they total 32% of the entire test and 90% of the Reading section. The oral reading subsection has a percentage of 4% with only handwriting and grammar subsections given less emphasis in the test. Students are not tested on silent reading/written comprehension; and Language Arts does not include a subsection on a writing task. Because the Brigance is so widely used for curriculum planning as well as assessment and diagnosis, the Inventory may influence what teachers emphasize or do not emphasize in their classroom teaching or on the Individual Education Programs (IEPs). The lack of emphasis on reading comprehension in the Reading and Language Art subsection is a cause for concern and indicates a need for a research based reevaluation by the the test publishers.

The oral comprehension subsection is illustrated by the following problematic passage for grade two.

1. Tom wanted to go for a ride.
2. He wanted to ride in their car.
3. Father was asleep in bed.
4. He did not want to get up.
5. Tom read his book about a fireman.
6. Then he went for a walk around the block.
7. Father was up and eating when he
8. came home.
9. Father said he would like to go for a
10. ride, too.
11. He wanted to go for a ride on the street
12. That goes up and down the three hills.
13. They went for the ride and took
14. mother with them.
15. Mother wanted to stop at the store.
16. She wanted to buy some milk and bread.

Notice that the topic shifts from Tom to Father and back to Tom. There is no linear progression of old and new information. For example, a more chronological, coherant and natural way to write lines 6 and 7 would be:

Then he went for a walk around the block. When he came home, Father was up and eating.

This is a problem of coherence and cohesion as is the lack of connecting words in the passage. If connecting words were added, the inferential load on the student would be lessened (e.g. line 3 But Father..., line 4 because he ..., line 5 So, Tom ..., line 16 because she ...).

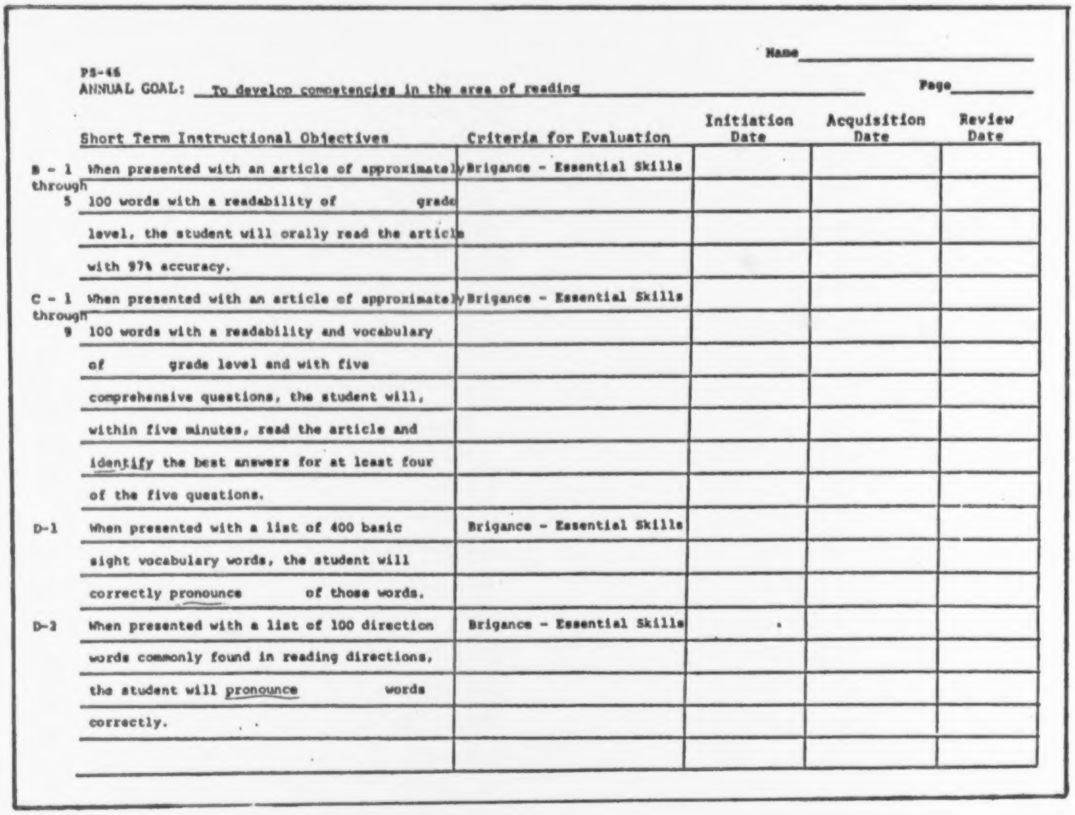
Of course, one could argue that it does not really matter if the child has trouble with coherence/cohesion and flow of information since no questions are asked of students requiring answers that cross sentence boundaries, or that ask global main idea questions. The following excerpts from the Inventory give a flavor for the test administration and show that the questions asked can all be answered by verbatim recall of the exact language in the passage. The questions are at a literal level (Who, What, Where) since they are textually explicit (right there in the text). Students do not have an opportunity to answer questions that ask them to infer, evaluate, or read critically.

> DIRECTIONS: After the student has read the passage orally as indicated in the left column, cover the passage. Ask the questions listed below.
>
> If the student does not respond to the question within 10 seconds,
>
> Say: Do you remember? or Can you tell me that one?
>
> Say: 1. What did Tom want to do? (take a ride)
>
> 2. What was Tom's book about? (a fireman)
>
> 3. What was father doing when Tom came home from his walk? (eating)
>
> 4. Who went on the ride with Tom and Father? (mother)
>
> 5. Where did mother want to stop? (at the store)
>
> TIME: Your discretion
>
> ACCURACY: 3/3 or 4/5 (100% on the first 3 questions or 80% on all 5 questions.)
>
> Give credit for reasonable paraphrases of answers.
>
> OBJECTIVE: After reading a second-grade reading passage orally, the student will verbally answer comprehension questions asked by the examiner regarding content in the passage with an accuracy of 80% or more.

Many teachers throughout the state of Indiana use the Brigance test and several statewide workshops are given in Indianapolis on the Brigance by directors of special education. The reasons cited for its widespread adoption are that 1) it is easy to give, 2) it is comprehensive, and 3) it contains both objectives and teaching strategies. We might wonder, though, how a special education teacher uses and reacts to this test.

For example, Joan's district has developed IEP forms which list objectives that coordinate with the Brigance test. The Brigance is administered by the psychometrist. On the IEP and Brigance Student Record Book, Joan marks NA if the skill is too difficult or is one the student has already mastered. For unmastered, appropriate skills, she marks the date the skill was assessed and the date of expected mastery (usually the beginning and end of the school year). Joan does not care for the Brigance objectives and supplements them with with her own because she feels the Brigance tests inflates the students' scores and believes that inflated scores are not good for students. The vast discrepancy between scores for the Brigance and Gates Reading tests (e.g. 11th grade placement for Brigance and 3rd grade for the Gates) has prompted Joan, as the department head, to require the teachers she supervises to give the Gates test even if it is not a township requirement. Samples of Joan`s Brigance IEP objectives and her own IEP objectives are displayed in Tables 2.1 and 2.2.

Table 2.1. Brigance-Based IEP



Name____________________

PS-46
ANNUAL GOAL: To develop competencies in the area of reading

Page______

	Short Term Instructional Objectives	Criteria for Evaluation	Initiation Date	Acquisition Date	Review Date
B - 1 through 5	When presented with an article of approximately 100 words with a readability of grade level, the student will orally read the article with 97% accuracy.	Brigance - Essential Skills			
C - 1 through 9	When presented with an article of approximately 100 words with a readability and vocabulary of grade level and with five comprehensive questions, the student will, within five minutes, read the article and identify the best answers for at least four of the five questions.	Brigance - Essential Skills			
D-1	When presented with a list of 400 basic sight vocabulary words, the student will correctly pronounce of those words.	Brigance - Essential Skills			
D-2	When presented with a list of 100 direction words commonly found in reading directions, the student will pronounce words correctly.	Brigance - Essential Skills			

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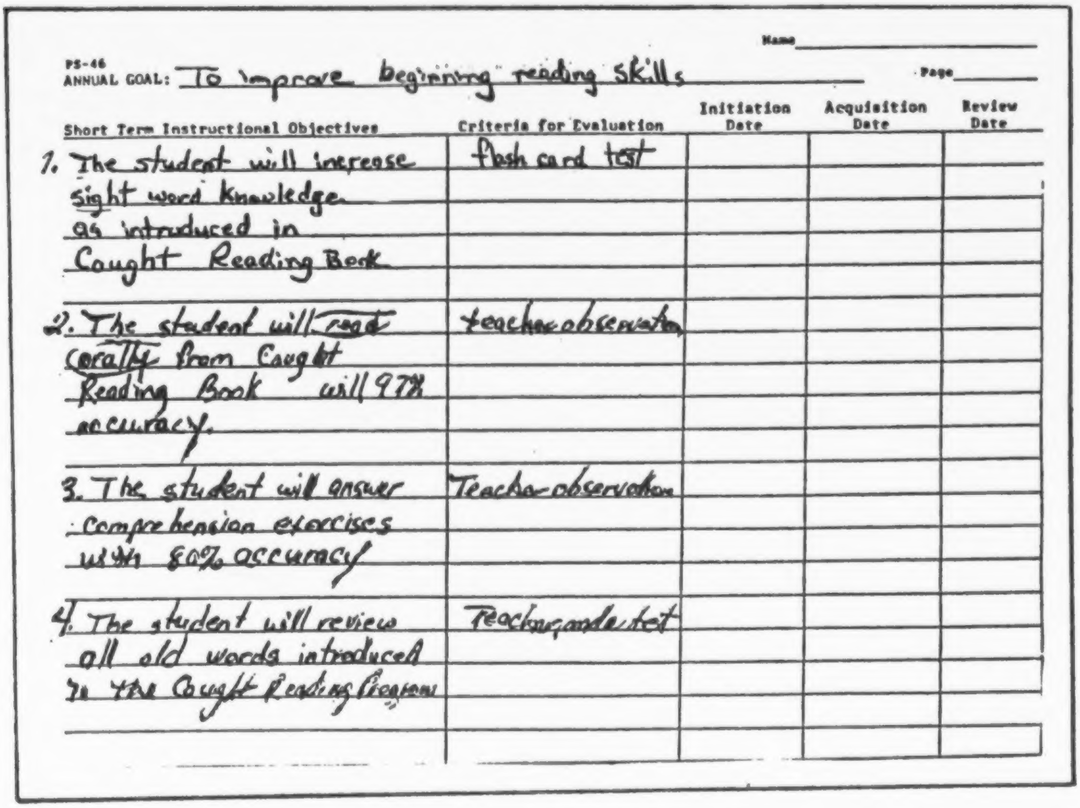
Table 2.2. Teacher Developed IEP



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Name ______

ANNUAL GOAL: To improve beginning reading Skills

Page ______

Short Term Instructional Objectives	Criteria for Evaluation	Initiation Date	Acquisition Date	Review Date
1. The student will increase sight word knowledge as introduced in Caught Reading Book	flash card test			
2. The student will read (orally from Caught Reading Book will 97% accuracy.	teacher observation			
3. The student will answer comprehension exercises with 80% accuracy	Teacher observation			
4. The student will review all old words introduced in the Caught Reading Program	Teacher-made test			

We learn from Tables 2.1 and 2.2 that, for the Brigance IEP, students orally read passages 100 words long (written to readability formulas), identify (from a list of choices) the answers to comprehension questions, pronounce sight vocabulary words, direction words, and the words in the 100 word article. For Joan's IEP, students also pronounce sight words, pronounce the words in the Caught Reading book, review old words and orally answer comprehension questions. The emphasis is on decoding, pronouncing, and mastery. No attempt is made to check on the comprehension of the words used for reading directions. Joan's criteria for evaluation involves flash card tests, teacher observation, and a teacher-made vocabulary test. Interestingly, her own objectives are written much less precisely than are those from the Brigance Inventory.

The Chicago Mastery Program

This program is based on the mastery learning principles - using frequent feedback and reinforcement to help students systematically master units of material. It is characterized by teaching to objectives, sequential instruction and district-wide management plans - with special training for principals, curriculum specialists and teachers. The clain is made that mastery learning improves the performance of all students. It is said to be a teacher - proof program.

As one teacher described the program, "Chicago Mastery Learning is largely a test-retest program that has two aspects - word attack and comprehension - which are separated." The Chicago Mastery People, she explained, "want you to 1) walk the kids through a lesson, 2) have the students grade it immediately and then 3) go over it" (Interview Mrs. G).

Chicago Mastery Learning is highly scripted and worksheet oriented. Table 3 provides an example of a scripted lesson. Table 4 lists the directions found on the worksheets used during classroom observations.

Table 3.

Examples of Chicago Mastery Worksheet Directions to Students

-- Look at the picture. Circle the name of the season.
--Draw a line from the picture to the name of the season.
--Write the word that tells about each building.
--Make it true.
--Put the word in the sentence. Read the sentence. Make a picture to go with it.
--Read the stories. Circle the correct answers.
--Select the color for each box. Match the numbers to color the picture.
--Cut out the sentences.
--Paste the sentences in the boxes.
--Write the CVCE word that matches the picture. Remember, the v is long and the e is silent. Write the long vowel on the line.
--Circle the picture if the letter c has the hard sound as in cat.
--Paste the t picture under the T.V.
--Circle the words that match the pictures.
--Circle the words you hear.
--Circle the word that is the same in each set.
--Cut out the cards.
--Finish the picture

Table 4

Excerpt from Chicago Mastery Lesson Plan on Seasons

Unit 9 COMPARING THE SEASONS

Write the word summer on the board.

Say: Summer is the season that comes after spring.

Explain that during summer it's very hot outside, so we can wear light clothing. We don't go to school in the summer, so we can play outside all day long.

Hold up the picture of summer. Have the students describe what they see in the picture.

Write the word fall on the board.

Say: After summer comes fall.

Explain that during fall it starts to get cold. The leaves on the trees turn to different colors and fall off. In fall we begin school.

(Have the class move their cut-out bears to fall.)

Bartholomew notices that it's getting colder outside, so, he wears long pants and a jacket when he goes out to play. The leaves are falling off the trees, so, he can't hide from his friends in the trees anymore. Instead, Bartholomew spends his time after school raking up the fallen leaves into big piles. Then, he and his friends play hide and seek under all the leaves! Bartholomew also has to pick the vegetables he planted in spring. They've been growing all summer, and they're finally ready to eat. He has to pick them quickly, because winter's coming.

Ask: Where does Bartholomey go when fall begins?
What happens to the leaves during fall?
What do Bartholomew and his friends do with

> the leaves?
> What happens to the vegetables in the garden during fall?

Fieldnotes capture what the program looks like in practice:

> Turning to the board. Sandy says, "I've drawn some trees on the board. . . Today we are going to pretend you are a woodcutter." Then, reading from the Chicago Mastery Manual: WOODCUTTERS ARE PEOPLE WHO CUT DOWN TREES. THE PERSON WHO OWNS THE WOODS HAS TOLD US THAT WE CAN CUT DOWN SOME OF THE TREES, BUT THAT THERE ARE OTHERS, WHICH WE MUST NOT TOUCH. Still following the manual, she says, "I want Jason to come by and cut down (put an "X" meaning to cut down) the tall tree." The child goes to the board and does this. Sandy has written on the board (in accordance with the directions in the manual), PAUL CUT DOWN THE TALL TREE. She then has the child underline the word that told him which tree to cut down. This procedure (mark out/underline word) continues with `LITTLE TREE', `BROKEN TREE', and `BARE TREE'. "Heather, come up and cut down the little tree -- What word tells you what tree to cut down?. . .These are called words that describe. . . They describe trees."
>
> (Sandy, Observations #2)

The fourth observation field notes state that the lesson plan for the next day is a follow up to the Four Seasons Lesson taught yesterday. Essentially the teacher will tell 4 little stories about Bartholomew the bear and what he likes to do in Summer, Spring, Winter, and Fall. Each little story which the children listen to is about 5 or 6 sentences long. After listening to the stories, the children will answer 3 questions (quite literal) and complete two worksheets. One of the work sheets will be used to teach the lesson itself, the other entails the children cutting out four Bartholomew the Bear activity pictures and pasting them next to the appropriate season. The researcher asks Sandy if she will do the lesson pretty much as the manual suggests or if she plans on improving it and if so, how. She says, "No, I'll do what the manual suggests. . . They do a pretty good job on seasons. . . I don't see how I could improve it."

Sandy likes the Chicago program because she believes that a reading program must have lots of reinforcement and practice - lots of repetition and seatwork - "Students have to be able to do seatwork on their own because if they don't understand, the teacher is not free to work with the other students." She notes that the Chicago program has a word attack book and a comprehension book and, "Sometimes it's pretty hard to tell which is which in these materials." According to Sandy, the best way to use the two books is not clear in the manuals. She first decided to do a complete unit in the word attack book followed by a complete unit in the comprehension book, but now finds it gets boring if she just sticks with a series of units from one of the books rather than mixing them. On Friday she uses materials other than Chicago Mastery - a story and comprehension exercise from a basal.

Sandy is also somewhat concerned about the Chicago materials because that the children don't really have to read since very little of the material consists of connected sentences of stories or non-fiction selections. The materials are organized around groups and group work instead of the individual child and "It's very skill oriented." Each unit has a test and retest and the teacher is supposed to give both forms. If students do not pass the test, they are to do additional activities and then take the test again. She believes this is an ideal, for she has found that in some cases her students did not master the skills even with teaching and reteaching. Under those conditions she then tries to find additional materials for those skills. She personally does not like to go ahead, though the Chicago program suggests she should, and feels uneasy about this practice. According to the Chicago people, "Skills are reinforced at other levels." She summed up her reaction to the program by stating, "I feel a bit unorganized and constantly rushed. The program sure is different! But, I suppose I will get used to it in time."

The data from the teacher interviews, field notes, and Tables 3 and 4 show that The Chicago Mastery Program is indeed, structured, scripted, skill-oriented and for the most part operating on a letter/word level. Students do a great deal of cutting, pasting, circling, drawing lines, drawing pictures, and underlining. The material read to the children is sophisticated and well-written and the questions based on their listening comprehension require crossing sentence boundaries at times. The material that the children read themselves, however, consists (for the most part) of worksheet directions (e.g. write the word that tells about each building).

The Caught Reading Program

This reading program was used in only one of the seven class-rooms (a junior high LD classroom), but its multi-sensory approach typifies materials written specifically for special education teachers and students. Its developers consist of a fiction writer (B.A.), educational designer (Ed.D.), editor (B.A.), a consultant (Ph.D.), and an illustrator. It is published by Quercus Corporation, located in Castro Valley, California. The series consists Caught Reading: The First Time, Caught Reading: The Second Time, and Caught Reading: The Third Time, etc. indicating different levels. The developers use a highly metaphorical and conversational style throughout the materials as is evident in the following excerpt from the introduction of Caught Reading: The First Time.

> . . . This book will be like a coach. It will tell you how to practice the things that will make you a better reader. Carefully follow what this book tells you to do. You will be a much better reader when you have finished.
>
> Professional baseball coaches work for years at finding the best way to teach baseball. There are also people who have worked for years at finding the best way to teach reading. These people have learned that reading, writing, and spelling all need to be taught together. You will be writing a lot in this book. As you go, we will tell you other things about how best to learn reading skills.
>
> Remember one thing: you can't play baseball or the guitar well without working at it. The same thing goes for reading. Practice reading everywhere. Read traffic signs, package labels, books, magazines, and any other words you see. Who knows? You might be caught reading all of those things -- and enjoying it.
>
> Memory Chips
>
> Did you ever hear of a memory chip? Memory chips are the parts of the computer that remember for you. There is a memory chip for each new word in this book. The chips will help you remember the words you learn.
>
> Each memory chip has two sides. Side A has the new word along with other words. Usually it is easier to remember a word when it is with other words. So you will always practice with Side A first. When you really know a word, you can read it by itself. So you will test yourself with Side B.

It is clear excerpt that 1) the developers see themselves as professionals whose credibility is grounded in years of experience (whether it is classroom, clinical, or research, we do not know), 2) they have learned that reading, writing and spelling all need to be taught together, 3) the student will be writing a lot in this book and 4) the student will be told other things about how best to learn reading skills as he/she goes along. We see that the developers consider practice to be essential, that students should practice on out-of-school, functional material, and that it is highly possible they will enjoy reading the print of the non-school world found in "traffic signs, package labels, books, magazines, and any other words." It appears the developers have a wholistic, functional, and sharing approach to teaching reading.

The computer chip metaphor and indicates that in addition to practice, the developers also consider memorizing as necessary for learning to read. Students are told they will be using memory chips (flash cards) to help them practice a word in context first and then without any context (isolated) as a way to check whether they really know the word.

These materials, like the Chicago Mastery materials, are highly scripted -- teacher/friend reads the directions and information about how to be a better reader to the students using the dark print. Unlike Chicago Mastery, however, this series directs students to follow along while they listen to the person reading the script as a method of learning to read the darker print independently later. Students are told to read the light print in the book independently:

> Parts of this book are written in lighter print. Sometimes the light print is only one word, and sometimes it is a whole story. Those parts you can read for yourself.
>
> Other parts, such as this page, are written in dark print. Your teacher or a friend will read those parts to you. But you should follow along as you listen. Following along will help you be a better reader. It will help you learn more words. And soon you will find that you can read the darker print too.

The multisensory approach and methodology is seen in this excerpt from the first lesson.

> WORDS TO KNOW
>
> Here are the rest of the words you need to know for the first story. You may already know some of them. Practice them all anyway. Remember to look hard at each word. Listen to yourself while you say it. Get a really good picture of the word in your mind. Then write it without looking.
>
> Learn these words well. That way you can really enjoy the story. You will know all these words.

	Look	Say	Picture	Write
a	____	____	______	_____
Bill	____	____	______	_____
Brad	____	____	______	_____
but	____	____	______	_____
game	____	____	______	_____
go	____	____	______	_____
goes	____	____	______	_____
he	____	____	______	_____
in	____	____	______	_____
is	____	____	______	_____
it	____	____	______	_____
on	____	____	______	_____
team	____	____	______	_____
time	____	____	______	_____
to	____	____	______	_____
up	____	____	______	_____

> Congratulations! You have just learned 29 words. That is enough to read the first story in this book.

Before students reach this point, they have already learned three rhyming words (fall, call, ball), learned to break words into parts as a way to picture and write the word from memory (bas.ket), and learned that they can change a root word by adding an s ending (falls, calls, baskets, gets, puts, starts, jumps). In the second lesson, they will review word attack (Add s to these words and write the new words. The new words will be in the story. Ready, set. . .attack!) and will learn to add er (In the story, a jumper is when someone jumps and shoots the ball at the same time). Students are then told:

> Now get out your memory chips from the Introduction and Chapter 1. Review them all. Ask for help if you don't remember a word. Then practice that word until you know it.
>
> Put your new chips in a safe place with your old chips. You wouldn't want to lose your memory!

The emphasis here is review, memory, practice, and mastery. Students are not to approximate, guess, and predict on their own. Rather, they are to ask for help in order to be accurate and are admonished to be organized and not careless. When students have mastered the 29 words with the "look, say, picture, write/memory chip" method, they are ready to read the story, 11 Seconds to Go, which is divided into two parts.

> (Part I) THE GAME STARTS
>
> The game starts. Up goes the ball. Bill jumps to get it. Brad jumps to get it. Bill gets it! He goes for the basket. He puts the ball up. In it goes. It is 2 - 0. Bill jumps up. "It is time to get a game!" he calls to the team.
>
> But Brad gets the ball. He goes for the basket. Bill jumps. . .but he is not in time. Brad puts the ball up. It goes in the basket. It is 2 - 2.
>
> The game goes on. It is 4 - 2. Then it is 4 - 4. Then it is 6 - 4. The team gets the ball to Bill fast. He goes for the basket. In it goes. It is 8 - 4. "Go, go, go!" Bill calls to the team.
>
> Then Brad puts up 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 baskets! It is 8 -12. Bill goes for the ball, He falls.
>
> "Time to get a fame, is it?" Brad calls to Bill. Bill get up. He starts to go for Brad. But the team gets Bill.
>
> "Go for baskets, not for Brad!" the team call to Bill. The game goes on. It is 8 - 12. Then it is 10 - 12. Then it is 12 - 12. . .on it goes!

After the students have read this far, they are interupted by this commentary:

> Why do we read? We read for fun, but also to

> find things out. So it is important to remember what we read. After each story you will practice remembering. We will be showing you some ways to make remembering easier.

Next they are told to do a cloze activity for "Remembering the Small Things" consisting of eight sentences taken directly from the story. Students then finish reading the story on their own and continue with a second activity.

> (Part 2) 11 SECONDS TO GO
>
> It is 74 to 74, and time goes fast. 11. . .10. . .9 seconds to go. Brad gets the ball and heads for the basket. Up he goes for a jumper. The ball starts to go in and then falls out. 8. . .7. . .6 seconds to go.
>
> Then Bill gets the ball. He runs fast for the basket--the wrong basket. "Bill, no!" his team calls after him. 5. . .4. . .3 seconds to go. But Bill does not hear. He puts the ball up and in the wrong basket. 2. . .1. . .0! Brad and his team get the game, 76 to 74!
>
> Remembering Small Things
>
> Write a word from the story in each space. You may look back at the story if you need to.
>
> 11. . .10. . .9 __________________to go.
> Brad goes up for a ________________. The
> ball falls ____________.
> Bill runs for the ___________________ basket.
> Bill does not ________________ his team call
> after him. Brad and his team get the
> ________________, 76 to 74!

This remember or "search and find" verbatim, cloze activity operates on a local, sentence level and asks for literal/factual, detail information. This activity is immediately followed by a more global activity that asks students to identify the topic of the story, choosing from a list of four choices. Notice that students are not asked to identify the theme or other story elements (plot, setting, characterization, tone/mood) that focus on story structure or author/character attitudes and emotions. Since the story is amply supported by three pictures illustrating basketballs, players shooting hoops, and other centextual information, students would have little difficulty choosing the topic of the story, a basketball game.

> WHAT'S THE BIG IDEA?
>
> Sometimes you read to find out small things. The words you wrote in the spaces above are small things from the story.
>
> It is also important to remember the big ideas in things you read. Sometimes that means being able to say, in a few words, what the whole story is about.
>
> All of the groups of words below are about the story. But one of the groups says best what the whole story is about. Write that group of words on the line.
>
> a basketball game
>
> team calls after him
>
> seconds
>
> runs fast

The final step for the students is to practice and review all their old memory chips (words) by reading a "free" story on their own.

> TAKE A BREATHER
>
> After each story you get a free story. That means you don't have to learn any new words to read it. The free stories give you more practice reading and words you already learned.

The next section presents a group of scenarios based on information from interviews and field notes (they include the teachers comments) to show why and how one teacher uses this program with her students. We focus on how she uses this program with one student, Todd, who according to a Gates reading test (given February, 1985) received grade-equivalent score of 1.3 for vocabulary and 1.6 for comprehension.

SCENARIO 1 (December 7)

Todd is one of several students in the low reading group busy at a table listening to words and doing workbook pages. One of the pages has three sections: Remembering Small Things, What Happens Next, and Read It Again. Joan puts on tape the directions that are in dark print in the book and then adds extra directions so that the students can do the pages independently.

Todd brings Joan a list of words (a ditto). Next to each word on the page, he has written the same word twice. On the tape he was listening to, Joan tells him to write the word slowly as she says it, so he can connect the tactile, visual, and auditory inputs. After he does the whole list, the tape repeats each word again. This time Todd is not to write the word, but to say the word before or with the tape. Todd reads this list to Joan who listens and provides any words he has trouble with. These words come from the *Caught Reading Series* and Joan likes it because it is multi-sensory and it assumes that students do not know any words at all.

Todd can be trusted to do all the steps (Look, Say, Picture, Write), so she allows him to do the lessons with only the tape for directions. After he has read all the words (approximately 25) to Joan, she tells him to read the story. When he misses a word, Joan corrects his error. She says that Todd knew no words at all when he began the year, qualifying this by saying that he might have known some works in isolation, but not in context.

While Joan and Todd work on his lesson from *Caught Reading: The First Time*, Todd's classmate, Kris works on a workbook page from *Caught Reading: The Second Time* at a nearby table. The workbook page begins with a maze activity where Kris hears on tape and reads "They fall into the icy lake." and chooses from a) *rain*, b) *cold*, c) *fast* for her answer. For the second exercise, Kris reads a sentence with a blank, finds its match on the text, and fills in the blank. Her last activity says, "Circle what you think will happen next. Write out sentences that back what you think."

SCENARIO 2: (January 4):

Christmas vacation has just ended. Joan is at the front of the room - book in hand, as class begins, "What vowel for today, Todd?" Todd replies, *e*. "Right. Short *e*, like Ed," Joan responds. Joan gives a spelling test next to see "if you can remember some of the things we learned before Christmas about beginning sounds and final letters." For the second word, *shelf*, she says to Todd, "You need another letter here, Todd. What's the beginning sound of this? What two letters go /sh/?"

Todd next practices and reviews his sight words for *Caught Reading*. When asked about Todd and sight words, Joan explains that some of the words he has to know immediately but that sometimes he goes through all the possibilities to get the right one. Todd often misses her, his, and its, for example. When next asked if it is possible that Todd would know some words in context but not in isolation, Joan replies that is is possible but then repeated that there are some words he has to know on sight.

SCENARIO 3 (January 4)

Joan says to Todd, "As soon as I'm finished with Tom, you'll go back to the table. Meanwhile, now that you are done with your book (Caught Reading: The First Time), I would like you to go over every single word - review all the words given to you in the book." The words (memory chips) are on small pieces of paper that have the word on one side and a sentence on the other, such as car, "It is her car."

Next, Joan gives Todd directions for a workbook page with four separate exercises. Todd must match the s sound, then match words that end with /m/. Next, he fills in a missing letter m, and last uses the words in a puzzle.

While Todd is at the table, Joan comments that Todd has finished his workbook for Caught Reading and says " This is the greatest reading series! Now, Todd can read a `novel'!" She goes on to explain again that the program assumes that the student knows no words and that the novel uses all the words (and only those words) that the student has learned from the workbook.

Joan then says, "Todd, you can come back to me now bring your book." Todd comes and is told, "Now we are going to go over the words - start with number one." Todd has in front of him several rubber-banded stocks of words, about six inches worth of "memory chips" which come in the back of the book. She says that she considers this another reason why this book is so great (the memory chip flash cards).

The first word is in. Todd reads "it out in." Joan asks Todd to read the back of the card and he reads "The ball goes in." Joan puts this card in a separate pile. Todd proceeds through the first pile. When he misses a word, Joan asks him to read the sentence on the back. Missed words go in one pile, correct responses in another. When Todd omits a word such as wrong in, "The wrong ball", Joan helps him by pointing out that wr says /r/ and that they had not yet studied that combination, referring to their phonics workbook. She tells Todd that by making two piles she will know which words to make a tape for. Because they will be used over and over again in the book, he needs to know them all. After Todd completes one rubber-banded pile, she says to him. "We need to stop and go over what you will be doing in third period class (in another teacher's room). I'll keep the words you missed and write down in the book where you stopped."

Todd listens as Joan then explains what to do for the worksheets later that day. "This whole page is starting letters. This page is listening for three of the same sounds at the beginning. This page, too. This part here, put in beginning or ending sounds. Here, you listen for g at the start and at the end. These pages might not be enough, so if you get done early, you can practice your word cards some more." The bell rings and Todd leaves.

SCENARIO 4 (March 14:)

Joan distributes grade cards to the students, explaining that this quarter their grades were half reading, and half spelling. She says she counts tests the same as worksheets, gives them phonics every day and grades those worksheets. This, she explains, helps their grade because they do it as a group. When they do individual work, they do not do as well. She also says that they generally get A's on *Caught Reading* and that all work done in *Barnell Loft Multiple Skills* is averaged as one grade.

SCENARIO 5 (March 24:)

The spelling lesson is over for the day and students get out their reading books. Three students go to the back table to work with Joan - they are all working on *Caught Reading: The Third Time*. Two boys are to work on their own and later they will talk about it with Joan. One boy does not understand the directions and Joan explains he is to write down something that would describe the little boy who got lost. The boys begin to do that. The third boy works on a *Special Skills* (Boning) lesson. Joan explains that she borrowed the *Caught Reading* program from the mentally handicapped (MIMH) room upstairs. The researcher doing the observing wonders: "I wonder how these kids feel about using books that they know the kids labeled mentally retarded use?"

> Todd is now working on Caught Reading: The Second Time. The page that he is on tells him to circle the words below that will tell him what will happen next in the story. Joan helps him with that.

These 5 scenarios show that Joan likes a multi-sensory approach to reading that either reinforces strong modalities or helps to overcome weak modalities. She believes, like the program developers, that it is best to assume that students know nothing and to start them from scratch. She found the "memory chip" review cards provided in the back of the book an appealing feature. She attributed Todd's growth in vocabulary to using this program. (It must be noted though, that she reported Todd's Gates Vocabulary grade equivalent scores for February, 1984 as 2.0 and February, 1985 as 1.3 - a loss of .7 months. The Gates Comprehension grade equivalent score in February, 1984 was 1.0 and in February, 1985 was 1.6 - a gain of .6 months. These figures tell a mixed story for Todd and Caught Reading.)

It is clear that although Joan follows the program fairly closely, she does modify it. She adds her own directions, elaborating on the directions so that students can handle the worksheet pages independently. She reverses the order for the instructions on the memory chip flash cards for the words. Instead of having the students read the words in the context sentence first and then read the word by itself as a test of knowing it, she has students read the word by itself first and then read the word in context as a test of knowing it. She has students do this in reverse - a more familiar and typical way for teachers to teach vocabulary. She also uses phonics with Todd when he does not remember his sight words from the program. She seems excited that Todd can actually read a novel even though he was her poorest reader. We can see that Todd has moved from Caught Reading: The First Time to Caught Reading: The Second Time - which asks him to predict what will happen next in his story/novel. His class-mates who are in Caught Reading: The Third Time are involved in describing characters and finding evidence to support their ideas. Students using this program are active - they do, in fact, Look, Listen (to Joan on a tape), Say (words), and Picture and Imagine (the shape of a word) and Write (a word). With access only to Caught Reading: The First Time, it is impossible to say whether this multi-sensory approach ever goes beyond the word level and whether students ever read more than "29 word" stories. The program does use an informal, interpersonal, and lively teaching style filled with figurative language to explain what they should know and do to read better. And at times, it even explains why the strategies students are to use are important for them to know about and use. The program also assumes that special education students can learn to read and learn to enjoy reading.

A Survey of Other Materials: Patterns and Counter-Patterns

Elementary

Half of the 24 elementary documents analyzed were part of the Chicago Mastery Program. The remaining documents fell into three broad groups: Commercial worksheet pages, a teacher-made bulletin board and student writings. The student writings and bulletin board documents we will consider as anomalies or, in other words, the counter-patterns.

1. Commercial worksheet pages

*Holt, Rinehart, Level 9 (classifying people and places/phrases; constructing new words by doubling the final consonant before adding ing).

*Houghton Mifflin, Weavers - (Vocabulary reinforcement; Crossword puzzle; Comprehension - fill-in-the characters' names and complete the sentence.).

*Publisher Unknown - Consonant Poems - 4 lines (Jeanette shows the jaguar the jacket she made and her jewelry of Japanese jade. The jaguar prefers the old jeans that he has, and he jeers, "I don't go for that jazz!")

*Holt, Rinehart Basal. (Questions on short stories asking for factual details - such as - Who were Linda's brothers? What did William stand on? What did Cedric have? What did Cedric want?)

*Houghton Mifflin English 4 - (What is a verb? Find the verb in the sentence and write it/fill in a missing verb.)

Students worked on reading skills, classifying, phonics, vocabulary and text-explicit facts.

2. Teacher-made Bulletin Board

The bulletin board consisted of logos from environmental print:

* Can you read these labels? (Blue Bonnet Butter, Campbells Soup, Jiffy Cake Mix, Van Camps Pork and Beans, Gerber Baby Food, Jell-O, Sunkist Raisins, Liptons Cup-of-Soup, Kool Aid, Velveeta Cheese)

Students were asked to decode these words, applying phonics rules.

3. Student Writings

These tasks had three levels of complexity.

*Sentence starters for students to complete (If I had a million dollars, I would....and If I were going on a trip and could only take 5 things with me, I would take...).

*Stimulus pictures on a calendar (a frog sitting on a stump, a goose standing on a beach, 3 butterflies flying, mushrooms and a spider, and a bat flying).

*Student-generated, illustrated "books" as a response to an informal talk with an author of children's stories. (My Cabbage Patch Doll seemed to be the common topic, although it was not an assigned topic)

Students read their own texts to their classmates. The texts varied in length, in conventional use of spelling and punctuation, and in sentence compelxity, craftmanship, and interestingness. Examples can be found in the Appendix.

Junior High

The junior high teachers were considerably more varied in their choice and use of materials than were the elementary teachers.

1. Work sheets

Reading, Language Arts and Social Studies worksheets came from publishers of major basal reading series and publishers of popular supplementary materials.

*Barnell Loft Specific Skills -- Getting the Facts: B. Students read 5 paragraphs of 4 short sentences each and answer a factual question for each ("A man cut a: a) tree b) rope c) cake."); Using the Context: C. Students read three sentence chunks with two blanks to fill in from a list of choices. (Did you know that one part of a living tree is not alive? The outer skin is ______________. It protects the tree from (12) _________________ and keeps it from losing water. (11) (A) puzzle (B) speech (C) hungary (D) Deal (12) (A) music (B) cheer (C) harm (D) address

*Holt Reader Workbook -- Riders on the Earth. Questions on 5 selections (e.g. What words tell that the doe was hurt? Describe the Bean's house. Write the word that means mixture. What did Mr. Herman do for a living? What things did George do for his grandfather?)

*Open Count The Reading Connection: Frankenstein. Students read a two page adapted excerpt (e.g. While living in the woods, the creature found a suitcase filled with fine books. He taught himself to read. He learned to speak. But it did not help. People were struck with horror as soon as they saw him)

*Sherman Publishing Company. Famous People and Billie Jean King. Students read a two paragraph passage and identify the main idea and correct answers to 3 fact questions.

*Educational Insight Olivia Newton-John. Students read 6 short paragraphs of 3 sentences each. (e.g. Talent has also given Olivia the opportunity to travel Africa where she was part of a TV special. The program was about two cheetahs born in captivity. It explained the problem of reintroducing those cats into wilderness.) and then answer one multiple choice question each on main idea, finding the facts, vocabulary building, finding the sequence, cause and effect and making inferences based on the passage and an enrichment question.

*Our Living Language. Students underline nouns, fill in blanks with nouns and write 45 nouns shown in a picture.

*Scott Foresman -- Language Structure and Use. Students add quotation marks to sentences.

*Story form definitions: (setting, characters, conflict, inciting force, rising action, crisis, climax, falling action, slow form) and a book report outline using the definitions.

*Globe Books, Writing Power. Students read a section on paragraph titles ("As you've seen, the scribble sheet can show you what you should write about in your paragraphs. Lots of times the paragraph title itself gives you a headstart") and which shows students how to use titles as clues for narration, description and exposition.

and slogan just right for one of their novels characters and use fabric crayons on a paper T - shirt. Students must make up their own captions for the cartoons.

*"What will you visit?" - A worksheet on map skills asking, "Where will you go and how many miles/kilometers?"

2. Teacher-made Materials

*Study guide for SE Hinton novel That Was Then, This is Now. Students answer 1-6 vocabulary questions on a vocabulary word presented in the original sentence from the novel and 1-7 comprehension questions, mostly about characters (e.g. Name the two main characters and describe each. Who wanted revenge in Chapter 2 and why?)

*Vocabulary exercise on That Was Then, This Is Now. Activities consited of 13-18 matching, yes or no. Is the word used correctly? and fill in the blank or write sentences with the words.

*Test on That Was Then, This Is Now. Students answer 30 vocabulary questions similar to those on study guide/exercises (15 character identification, describe two main characters in the novel, sequence events, sentence completion on characters/author, explain the change in Bryon).

*Study guide on sixth grade Chicago museum trip. Specific questions on transportation, medicine, and health, life and living exhibits (e.g. List any safety features for this type of transportation. What things might you have done for fun if you had been a sixth grader 50 to 70 years ago?) General questions (e.g. were there any problems on your bus or in your small group?)

*Social Studies test on explorations. 30 fill in the blank or short answer lists (e.g. Who conquered Mexico? How did the Aztecs first feel about the Spaniards?)

*Paraphrased story of "The pig with the wooden leg" heard on the Johnny Carson show. Students use this as a model for quotation marks and dialogue. (One day I had to drive all the way from Chicago, Illinois to (local community), Indiana. . ."Excuse me," I said, "that is quite an unusual pig." "This pig is the greatest!" the farmer replied. . .)

*Classroom rules for student messages to peers. Students read the rules and consequences on the middle of the bulletin board. (Write notes during your free time only; Write messages that are appropriate for school. . .Follow the rules and have fun!)

*A list of 15 titles in the school library. Students use the titles to elaborate and predict what the story will be about. (e.g. Find Debbie, Winning, Cry of the Wolf)

3. Student Writings.

*Student dialogues to practice quotation marks. Students work as partners to create dialogues while a third student acts as scripter and writes down the dialogue. ("What did you do last night, Greg?" Wayne said? "I watch TV." Greg said. "I didn't, Because I was working." Wayne said. "After I got done watching TV I unloaded some feed!" Greg said. "After I got done working, I rode my three wheeler." Wayne said.) The students share these dialogues with their peers.

*Pick A Pal letter project.

Students write letters on a computer to future special education teachers who are attending nearby university describing themselves so they can be matched to a pen pal. The university students' letters will be used as models for the students to follow. (e.g. My name is Mike K__________. My favorite hobby is woodworking. I like rock music. My favorite food is pizza. I love dogs.)

The student writings in the junior high sample appear shorter and in some ways, less complex than those in the elementary sample. This may be because they do not write daily as the elementary students do in one of the classrooms.

PART III DOCUMENT ANALYSIS: PROFILES AND PATTERNS

This section reports findings that resulted from applying the materials taxonomy (included as Appendix A) to the documents given by the teachers to the researchers. The documents represent a part of the materials the researchers saw being used and were collected from a total of 20 classroom observations. It is evident from the interviews and the field notes that these documents are typical and representative of materials used in these seven special education classrooms. Only materials that students actually read or heard teachers read to them were used with the taxonomy. It is important to remember that these quantitative findings, reported as percentages of the total set of 24 documents for each school level, are, at best, only general indicators of the emphasis given to each category by teachers. Categories are sometimes fuzzy and ill-defined, and some categories overlap since materials often had multi-purposes. In addition, some documents consisted of multiple worksheets of the same type of activity. For example, one "document" was a set of sight word activities consisting of 20 worksheets, all similar. The percentages are meant to be used in identifying patterns and trends. Each major section has been divided into several subcategories.

1. General Characteristics of the Materials

The General Characteristics of the materials makes up Part I of the taxonomy and consists of six major sections: Origin of the Materials, Selection Decision, Implicit/Explicit Learning Theory, Objectives of the Materials, Orientation/Dominant Focus of the Materials, and Patterns of Material Use. The percentages found for each subcategory for elementary and junior high school levels are shown in Table 5. The patterns and trends identified will be compared for both school levels and for each major category of the General Characteristics of the materials. To show these patterns more clearly, a general profile will be drawn for each school level from a student's perspective.

TABLE 5

Percentages for General Characteristics of the Materials

Category Description	Elementary %	Junior High 5
Origin		
Publisher	71%	70%
Teacher	17%	26%
Student	22%	09%
Others	---	04%
Selection Decision		
District/Cooperative	50%	---
Classroom teacher	50%	100%
Students	---	----
Implicit/Explicit Learning Theory		
Mastery	50%	---
Schema	---	04%
Multi-sensory	09%	13%
Modeling	04%	13%
Undetermined	42%	70%

Material Objectives		
Cognitive Skills	96%	92%
Learning Skills (metacognitive)	---	04%
Subject Matter Skills	04%	25%
Attitude/Values Development	---	22%
Communication Skills/Pragmatics	17%	09%
Reading/Writing as Learning Tools	09%	---
Reading To Accomplish a Task	11%	---
Readiness	25%	09%
Socialization	04%	09%
Instruction	100%	96%
Evaluation/Diagnosis	----	04%
Material Orientation/Dominant Focus		
Subskills	41%	37%
Wholistic, Integrative Skills	04%	30%
Decoding	30%	23%
Vocabulary/Concept Development	25%	22%
Comprehension Meaning (sentence/or text)	33%	60%
Composition	17%	20%
Visual Literacy/Visual Displays (comprehension/production)	----	04%
Literature/Closed/Controlled/Structured	62%	60%
Open/Undetermined	38%	40%
Patterns of Material Use		
Teacher-Directed (teacher to student)	87%	83%
Student Undirected (self to self)	09%	04%
Student Directed (student to student)	---	----
Social Interaction (participation)	04%	13%

Profile of Elementary Materials

Becky, a composite of the children in three elementary classrooms, would find that most of the materials she reads comes from a publisher of educational materials and is selected by her district/cooperative as often as by her teacher. At least half of what she reads is grounded in mastery learning theory. She reads materials whose goals are to instruct her and develop her cognitive skills.

Becky spends a great deal of time on developing subskills such as vocabulary/concept skills with highly structured, controlled material that her teacher directs her to use whether she is a member of a small group or at her desk doing "independent" seatwork.

She seldom finds that her material originates from her teacher, her classmates or herself. Neither she nor her classmates select any of the materials she reads throughout the day. She does not find any of what she reads based on recent learning and reading theory such as schema theory or a cognitive approach and very little on a theory of modeling and imitation. She would not find her materials explicitly trying to teach her how to learn which metacognitive skills were needed and when they were needed in order to develop her cognitive skills for reading and writing. She would not read materials whose purpose was to increase her knowledge and skills for specific content areas. None of her materials would have as goals 1) the development of more positive attitudes toward reading, writing, or the subject areas, 2) interpersonal, communication skills, 3) pragmatic ("appropriateness") functional skills for language, 4) reading or writing as a way of learning and discovery, or 5) evaluating (either evaluation of herself or evaluation of what others had written). None of her materials would focus on her becoming more adept at comprehending and producing visuals such as maps, charts, tables, diagrams and graphic structural overviews. Collaborative learning, active participation in small groups or whole class discussions, sharing, and teaching her peers would not be suggested by the materials she read. Directing herself as an independent learner would not be encouraged by the reading materials she read.

Profile of Junior High Materials

The composite student for four junior high classrooms will be called Mitch. Mitch also would find that three fourths of all his materials comes from educational publishers while one fourth is teacher-developed. Occassionally, he finds that he reads something written by himself, his peers or others. Mitch's classroom teacher does all the selecting of material for him and his classmates - he and his peers are never asked to help with selecting decisions, and the district/cooperative has no selection input either. The materials he reads have a variety of learning theories as a basis such as multisensory and modeling, but mastery learning is not one of them. No doubt many of the materials he uses is atheoretical in regard to learning theory. The materials he uses intend for him develop his attitudes, values, and subject matter skills. A few intend that he develop interpersonal communication skills, pragmatic use of language, socialization skills, and reading and writing readiness. Fewer yet intend for him to learn how to use reading and writing as tools for learning and discovery, how to read to accomplish a task, or how to evaluate himself or others as readers or writers. He does read materials intending to evaluate his learning performance. More than half of what he reads is oriented toward comprehension of some sort (sentences, short textoids, or longer texts) and more than half is oriented toward being tightly controlled, structured, and negative regarding approximations and alternative appropriate answers. About one third of Mitch's materials can be considered to have a subskill orientation and a little less than a third to have a wholistic orientation. The dominant focus of his materials is vocabulary development and decoding while less than one fourth of his materials focuses on composition. Almost never does Mitch read materials where the dominant focus is on visual literacy. Most of the time his teacher directs him in the use of his materials, but occassionally he participates in group interactions or directs himself.

Comparison of Elementary and Junior High Patterns

The data presented in Table 5 show similar general characteristics patterns for elementary and junior high materials especially in several areas: Publisher as Origin (71% and 70%), Cognitive Skills (96% and 92%), Instruction as the Material Objective, Closed and Controlled As Material Orientation (62% and 60%) and a pattern of Teacher-Directed Material Use (87% and 83%). Other similar patterns were found for Subskills as the dominant focus (41% and 37%), Vocabulary/Concept development as a dominant Focus (25% and 22%), and Openess As a Material Orientation (38% and 40%). The data indicated other patterns too, for anomalies and absences: Materials Originated By Others (0% and 0%), Metacognitive Learning Skills (0% and 4%), Evaluation/Diagnosis As Objectives (0% and 4%), Student Directed Material Use (0% and 0%) and Self-directed Material Use (9% and 4%).

The largest differences between elementary and junior high materials seemed to be for the District/Cooperative As Selector (50% vs. 0%) Classroom Teachers As Selector (50% vs. 100%), Mastery Learning Theory (50% vs/ 0%), Readiness (25% vs. 9%) and Comprehension Orientation (33% and 60%).

2. The Range of Materials

The taxonomy describes the range of materials with three major parts - nonverbal, verbal, (oral, decontextualized, and more formal/written-like), and printed materials. The percentages for these categories are displayed in Table 6.

TABLE 6

Percentages for the Range of Materials

Category Description	Elementary %	Jr. High %
Non verbal		
Pictures	09%	---
Visual Displays (charts, tables diagrams, maps)	---	---
Classroom Environmental (stickers, posters, bulletin board)	---	---
Computer Graphics	---	---

Table 6 (continued)

Verbal (oral, written-like)		
Scripted Teacher/Student Lessons	09%	04%
Non-scripted Teacher Lessons	---	---
Student Oral Texts	---	---
Tapes, Records, Video/TV, Computer	---	04%
Songs	---	---
School Intercom Announcements	---	---
Reading of Texts/Books	---	---
Printed Materials		
Classroom Environmental (rules, assignments, labels)	13%	04%
Lists	---	04%
Advertisements	---	---
Trade books	---	---
Basal Textbooks (reading/content area)	---	04%
Commercial Worksheets related to basal/trade selections	13%	30%
Commercial Worksheets non-related to basal/trade selections	80%	22%
Teacher-made Worksheets/Study Guide	---	17%
Student Writings (handwritten/computer)	17%	17%
Spelling Book	---	---
Handwriting Book	---	---
Games, Puzzles	---	---
Flashcards	---	---
Computer Software	---	---
Newspapers (student, adult)	---	---
Magazines	---	---
Teacher Test	---	---
Published Test	---	---
Style/Rhetorical Devices		
Discourse	---	---
Metadiscourse	---	---
Informational	---	04%
Attitudinal	---	04%
Textual/Flow and connecting	---	---
Discrete unconnected sentences	25%	30%
Tone/Manner		
Formal	33%	37%
Informal	33%	37%
Natural/Written for a real purpose	04%	44%
Artificial/Written To Teach A Skill	17%	09%
Non-literal/Metaphorical	13%	---
Point of View		
First	25%	13%
Second	25%	13%
Interpersonal (First/second)	---	04%
Third	50%	60%

Formulaic	25%	09%
Original	30%	60%
Questions		
Real	04%	25%
Rhetorical	---	09%
Directives	13%	25%
Range of Grammatical Forms	30%	71%
Illustrations To Support	33%	25%
Visual Displays to Support	---	04%
Authorship Known	22%	25%
Subordination	22%	46%
Analogical	--	09%
Interestingness	37%	37%

Profile of Elementary Materials

Most of Becky's materials are commercial worksheets related to a textbook or trade selections. A few of her materials are pictures without print, scripted lessons read to her, classroom environmental texts such as classroom rules logos on bulletin boards, worksheets related to reading selections, or student writings. What kinds of materials are missing from Becky's inventory of materials? Visual displays of diagrams, charts, maps, etc.; computer graphics; advertisements; trade books; teacher-made worksheets/study guides; newspapers; magazines; and oral reading of trade books.

Profile of Junior High Materials

The range of Mitch's materials is more varied than Becky's, but, his inventory, too, lacks some kinds of materials. Except for some scripted lessons that he hears at a listening center, all his materials are printed materials. Over half of his materials are commercial worksheets, and about one third of his materials are worksheets related to reading selections,. Mitch does read some student writings and teacher-made tests, but he does not read any non-verbal materials.

Comparison of Elementary and Junior High Patterns

Both elementary and junior high materials are almost all printed materials. Less than one fifth of the materials used in elementary and junior high classrooms is written by students (17% and 17%) and little or no use is made of classroom environmental materials (13% and 4%), advertisements (0% and 0%) oral readings of books (0% and 0%), visual displays (0% and 0%). The largest difference is found for commercial worksheets not related to basal/trade selections (80% and 22%) with more of this type used in elementary classrooms. Pre Style/Rhetorical Devices categories are similar for elementary and junior high except that there is an increase in subordination, naturally written materials, questions and range of grammatical forms for the junior high level.

3. Text Characteristics

The third part of the taxonomy concerns text characteristics which has three major categories: Linguistic Unit, Text Types (Genre) and Text Type Elements. Table 7 shows the percentages for these subcategories.

TABLE 7

Percentages for Text Characteristics

Category Descriptor	Elementary %	Jr. High %
Linguistic Unit (dominant)		
Symbol	04%	---
Letter/syllable	---	---
Word	25%	04%
Phrase/Clause	04%	09%
Sentence	33%	50%
Paragraph	09%	17%
Multiple Paragraphs		
Connected	---	09%
Unconnected	17%	---
Text (whole)	09%	13%
Text type/Genre		
Expository	34%	17%
Narrative	04%	09%
Instructions/Procedures	---	09%
Persuasion/Argumentation	---	---
Description	13%	---
Comparison/Contrast	---	---
Problem/Solution	---	---
Cause/Effect	---	---
Classification	---	---
Drama/Dialogue	---	04%
Poetry	04%	---
Letters	---	04%
Journals/logs	---	---
Riddles	---	---
Reports	---	---
Notes	---	---
Text Type Elements		
Introduction	13%	22%
Conclusion	---	09%

Profile of Elementary Materials

More than one third of Becky's materials is written below the sentence level while one third is at the sentence level. The remainder of her materials are single paragraphs, or multiple but unconnected paragraphs, and a smattering of longer texts. The materials above the sentence level are generally expository texts with a few materials being narratives, descriptions or poetry. Becky has no opportunity to read letters, journals, logs, reports, riddles, notes, dramas, or text types like comparison/contrast, problem/solution, cause/effect, and classification. She sees no texts, either short or long, with conclusions and only a very few with introductions. Pictorial illustrations support one third of her materials, but not charts, tables, diagrams and maps. Most of what she reads has an anonymous author. Half of what she reads is written from third person point of view, with equal amounts in a formal or informal tone. Only a third of her materials covers a wide range of grammatical forms for phrases, clauses, and sentences. All of her materials are examples of a primary level, stripped-down content, proposition level discourse without any helpful informational or attitudinal author comments or reading directives. Becky sees very little non-literal, figurative use of language in her materials.

Profile of Junior High Materials

Half of Mitch's materials are written at a sentence level and one fourth at the single or multiple paragraph level, while the remainder is divided between whole texts and a word or phrase/clause level. Mitch has little opportunity to experience different genres and text types. He sees a few materials that represent genres like exposition, narrative, instruction, dialogue, and letters. Only about a fifth of his materials have any introductions and fewer still have conclusions. Almost half are natural materials which were written for real purposes and which contain subordination. Almost a third of what he reads, however, is a series of discrete, unconnected sentences. Most of his materials are written from a third person point of view and seem eem to be original rather than formulaic. Many of his materials are questions and directives. Only one fourth of his materials have a signed or known author, but almost three-fourths show a range of grammatical forms. He sees almost no informational or attitudinal (author commentary), directives to the reader (meta-discourse), rhetorical questions, analogical writing, or visual displays to support the material.

Comparison of Elementary and Junior High Materials

The greatest difference for Linguistic Unit concerns materials written on a word level (25% for elementary vs. 4% for junior high) and on the sentence level (33% vs. 50%). The patterns for elementary and junior high are seen for the genre/Text Type catagoring .

4. Task Factors

Table 8 shows the results of analyzing the materials with the fourth section of the taxonomy - Task Factors and its subcategories.

TABLE 8

Percentages for Task Factors

Category Descriptor	Elementary %	Jr. High %
Simple, Low Level Processes	63%	50%
Complex High Level Processes	37%	50%
Lesson Frameworks (before, during, after) for Reading, Writing	---	---
Generating Ideas	25%	22%
Recognizing/Identifying/Matching	54%	33%
On-line Comprehension	30%	31%
Recall	39%	44%
Using Generalizing Rules	33%	22%
Shifting Perspectives	---	---
Creativity	25%	17%
Problem-solving/De-bugging	---	04%
Integrating/Synthesizing	---	17%
Abstracting/Summarizing	09%	22%
Inferencing (high level)	09%	04%
Predicting	---	04%
Sequencing	---	04%
Categorizing	04%	---
Analyzing	---	---
Application/To Do/To Use	04%	22%
Cloze	13%	17%
Maze	04%	---
Oral Modality	30%	09%
Guided Practice	---	---
Transfer (near/far)	---	---
Reproducing/Copying	33%	33%
Producing A Text	25%	17%
Functional (real purposes & contexts)	09%	17%
Implies/States Individual Approach	70%	91%
Implies/States Collaborative Approach	30%	09%
Uses Previous Knowledge	56%	75%
Uses Data Supplied	44%	25%
Describe	09%	13%
Compare/Contrast	---	---
Explain	13%	22%
Interpret	---	17%
Make Value Judgment	---	09%
Establish Criteria	---	---
Develop Argument/Line of Reasoning	---	04

Profile of Elementary Materials

The tasks that Becky's materials require are usually simple, low level tasks such as recognizing, identifying, or matching. Only a fourth to a third of her materials require her to generate ideas, be creative, produce a text, or work collaboratively with her peers. Fewer still require any abstract high level inferencing, categorizing, describing, or explaining. About a third of what Becky reads requires her to use general rules such as those for phonics, and a third requires her to use as oral modality. Rarely is Becky's task functional in that it has real purposes and contexts rather than artificial ones. Becky does not have the opportunity to perform tasks based on a lesson framework involving activities for "before, during, and after" reading and writing or guided practice that leads to independent learning. Neither do her materials have tasks that require her to shift perspectives as she reads or writes, or to engage in problem solving, sequencing, transferring (to either near or far tasks), comparing/contrasting, developing an argument, establishing criteria and making value judgments.

Profile of Junior High Materials

The data tells a similar story for Mitch. His materials appear require a few more complex, high level tasks than do Becky's, for tasks in his materials are equally divided into simple and complex tasks. Most of his tasks require him to use his prior knowledge rather than use data supplied in the material in order to perform the task. Almost all of the tasks imply that Mitch will do them by himself rather than with the help of his classmates. Mitch does not write very much; therefore, he finds little chance to generate ideas or be creative. He doesn't do much integrating, applying or explaining and almost no problem-solving, high-level inferencing, predicting, sequencing, describing, interpreting, making value judgments or developing a line of reasoning. The materials Mitch uses do not have tasks that involve functionally, guided practice leading to independence, reading and writing from different perspectives, categorizing, comparing, and contrasting, establishing criteria or transferring to another close or distant task.

Comparison of Elementary and Junior High Patterns

Based on the percentages given in Table 8, the patterns for task factors seem quite similar for elementary and junior high levels. Both school levels have materials with simple and complex tasks, but at least half of all tasks are simple ones. Most of the tasks for both levels imply an individual rather than a collaborative approach, most are not functional, and most do nor require producing a text. Neither elementary or junior high tasks involve lesson frameworks for pre/post reading and writing activities or guided practice with gradual student independence. Few tasks require either elementary or junior high students to read in order to do or use something or to engage in tasks with actual purposes in real contexts. Many types of tasks were absent from both elementary and junior high materials, especially critical thinking/reading tasks.

The data suggest that junior high materials have tasks that require somewhat more complexity, abstracting, explaining, and integrating and use of prior knowledge and somewhat less oral work, writing, creativity, and peer support than do the tasks in elementary materials.

5. Reader Responses

The final part of the taxonomy concerns the Form of the Reader's Response to the materials. Verbal and non-verbal are the major categories for this section. The percentages for each subcategories are shown in Table 9.

TABLE 9

Percentages for Reader Response Form

Category Descriptor	Elementary %	Jr. High %
Non-Verbal		
None	21%	04%
Cut and Paste	09%	04%
Draw a Picture	09%	04%
Circle	13%	09%
Verbal		
Letter	04%	04%
Word	22%	22%
Phrase/clause	13%	17%
Sentence	13%	30%
Short Text/Single Paragraph	---	17%
Long Text/Multiple Paragraphs	---	---

Profile of Elementary Materials

About half of Becky's materials require no response or a non-verbal response to directions such as "cut and paste", "circle the answer", "draw a line", or "draw a picture". Of the half requiring a written response, all would be on a sentence level or below. Becky responds to her materials by writing a word more often than she does a phrase or clause or sentence. She is not asked to respond by writing either short or long texts.

Profile of Junior High Materials

Most of Mitch's responses to materials are on a sentence level (one third of all responses) or below (more than one half of all responses). Mitch responds with short texts to some extent but with long texts, not at all. About one fifth of his materials require no response or require a non-verbal response.

Comparison of Elementary and Junior High Patterns

Again, the patterns look very much alike for elementary and junior high materials. The reader's responses are typically on a sentence level or below for both elementary (100%) and junior high (83%) levels. Both levels have the same percentage for word level (22%) and letter level (.04%) responses. The elementary level had more materials with no responses required (21%) vs. (.04%) while the junior high had more responses required on the sentence level (.13% vs. 30%).

Additional Analysis: Ten Patterns/Ten Counter-Patterns

The findings from the analysis of the documents tell only a part of the story for the materials used in special education classrooms. The rest of the story comes from teacher comments (as recorded in the researchers' field notes). Identifying additional patterns and anomalies and confirming those found in the document analysis is impossible with this additional data.

Ten Patterns

1. Worksheets The scene is Mrs. G's self-contained MIMH classroom. In the front of this room a bulletin board is labeled "Good Work." The bulletin board is ringed with cutouts of the children's hands such that each hand has a different child's name on it. Every paper on the board is a worksheet. Included are worksheets on blends, numbers, and endings such as es. Obviously all have been done neatly, then graded, and labeled as "Good Work".

The scene is typical of the other special education classrooms: extensive use is made of commercial workbooks, worksheets, and ditto masters. Part of the reason for this may be found in Sandy's comment:

> LD kids can be taught short vowels sounds one day and not be able to retain the next. This means lots of reinforcement and practice -- lots of repetition and seatwork which they must be able to do on their own. If they don't understand how to do the worksheets, you are not free to work with the other students.
> (Interview, Sandy)

Teachers seem to believe that special education children learn best by practicing - by doing the same activity repeatedly. It is also evident that worksheets need to be easy for children to do, for if worksheets are challenging or have unclear directions, teachers must interupt their work with other children in order to explain. Although a few teachers used worksheets related to comprehending basal reading sections, most of the worksheets were related to phonics, sight words, vocabulary, and cut and paste activities. Teachers often use their own phonics workbooks (e.g. Modern Curriculum Press) to supplement the main classroom reading materials.

2. Basal Readers. All teachers reported using basal readers (Holt, Houghton Mifflin, Scotts Foreman, Laidlaw) selectively, matching a basal to the individual child and making sure the basal differed from the one used in a regular classroom if the child was main-streamed. Students are often in different basals, reading different stories, since an individualized approach is frequently used in special education classrooms. Basals are used rather infrequently compared to other materials, however. Once a week, typically Friday, students read a story and do a comprehension activity from a basal reading program.

3. Oral Reading. Students generally read stories and social studies and science selections orally rather than silently - often in unison. One teacher's comment, "I haven't turned them loose to read silently yet" illustrates teachers' attitudes toward silent reading. (Worksheets are sometimes read silently, however.) Oral reading is used by teacher as a method of insuring that students read the assigned reading and for assessing comprehension. Being able to decode words orally is equated with comprehension. Teacher/student reciprocal reading is frequent, but teachers do not read fiction or content area trade books to their students.

4. Vocabulary. Vocabulary is considered very important. In fact, teachers believe most of comprehension is accounted for by vocabulary. They typically pre-teach vocabulary, expecting vocabulary mastery before allowing students to read, "to make sure they've got the words first." Worksheets on synonyms and antonyms are frequent as are assignments on context clues in the Barnell Loft Specific Skills series.

5. Spelling. A great deal of time is spent on spelling materials by all teachers. Spelling grades make up much of the grades students receive - often 50%. The spelling books used by teachers vary, but they all have lessons to reinforce phonics, analysis, and linguistic patterns. Students are expected to memorize discrete lists of words unrelated to each other and to apply spelling rules-for example: scene, skate, skid, scat, scoff, skill, etc. . . rather than science, report, test, + project, fair, observe, notes. Spelling tests may also be the Dolch word list. There was no evidence that students are told why they should learn to spell correctly.

6. Basic Skills. Basic Skills in special education classroom materials means decoding skills in reading and capitalization/punctuation and parts of speech in Language Arts, especially for the poorest readers. As one teacher commented,

> While I enjoy the low groups of students, most of the time is spent in real basic reading: i.e. "This says /ah/" and, "Sound it out."
> (Interview, Joan)

It is important that students follow directions for doing phonic worksheet pages exactly. For example, when Jerry and Cory wrote whole words (spelled correctly) under pictures rather than the upper and lower case initial letter for the word representing the picture, they were told to do the page over. Their strategy illustrates the finding from cognitive psychology that children think in wholes, but materials developers and teachers apparently believe that parts are a more appropriate way to teach beginning reading.

Four days a week are typically spent on decoding and vocabulary and one day a week on comprehension. In Language Arts, students spent most of their time on capitalization and quotation marks and identifying nouns, verbs, and adjectives. In both reading and Language Arts, the emphasis is on learning rules and conventions, and the form of language rather than the functions of language, or the comprehension/composition of written communication. The skills needed for pragmatic, communicative language uses are not considered basic skills by the developers of materials or by teachers.

7. Multisensory Approaches. Teachers use "Hear, Say, Write" workbooks (Holt) color coded materials (both commercial and teacher-made), games emphasizing shapes, student-dictated sentences (since students are not able to write their own sentences yet) for language experience charts, tracing worksheets and picture sets to teach main ideas (e.g., the Orten Society workshop materials). Teachers use materials that are Visual, Auditory, Kinesthetic, and Tactile (VAKT) oriented because they wish to take students back to the beginning, build on their strong modalities or enhance their weak modalities for learning. Teachers like manipulative materials but also tend to use listening centers with multiple copies of texts and tapes received from materials resource centers. Sometimes they use library books and free reading ("Later when they get their work done"). When students attempt to read library books or non-commercial materials, they are told "Not now. You have to do language."

8. Length and Range. Students read many short texts: 3-4 sentences textoids in multiple skills/specific series (Barnell Loft), textoids in the Famous People series, one paragraph 'novels' (Caught Reading) and 1 to 3 sentence texts on worksheets. Many times the directions on worksheets (1 to 3 short, imperative sentences) are the longest texts that students

read. Students read mostly narratives. The basal selections, novels, short stories, vocational biographies, and famous people are all narrative and the materials used in listening centers are also narratives. During the school year, students typically are not introduced to non-fiction until January, if at all.

9. Composing Process. There is no evidence of a recursive, non-linear composing process approach in the materials that teachers and students use for reading and writing. No planning, drafting/translating/revising, editing/self monitoring stages, were seen for reading materials. Rereading was mentioned occasionally, but not as a re-vision of the text. Rather it was a re-pronouncing of the words far decoding accuracy. Anything students read or write apparently is considered finished with the first draft. No planning or sharing of plans, in-progress or completed final products were seen as student tasks in the materials. The materials indicate a pattern of products with no planning and ocassionally surface level proofreading . The creative aspect of composing was missing from reading. `Writing' meant handwriting, not composition on both IEPs and worksheets.

10. Questions, Tasks, and Assessment. Low level cognitive processing is the pattern for student questions and tasks in the materials. Students do a great deal of copying, recognizing, and identifying. They typically are asked by materials and teachers to recall facts and give precise and text-based answers in order to be considered correct and or acceptable. Most questions have right answers and most assessment involves questions. Teachers use informal and formal methods of assessing students' mastery of reading skills. The informal methods used are oral reading, performance on worksheets, and student answers to questions. Formal instruments were commercial tests: Brigance, Gates, MacGinity, Slingerland, Metropolitan, McCall-Crabbes, and test components from basal reading programs. Teachers do not make use of oral retellings (except for one teacher), or written recalls or summaries as assessment tools. Teachers assessed cognitive processes but did not assess attitudes toward reading, writing, or subject matter. Teachers did not assess comprehension with applied performance measures -- measures that assessed students' comprehension by having them perform tasks after reading instructions for performing.

TEN COUNTER-PATTERNS

1. Composing pre-text/text. Mrs. B. has her students write each day. She begins each day by alternating reading and writing. She does not grade her students' products for mechanics and invites her students to share their writing with their peers. She tells students to draw pictures if they can't determine how to spell a word. The student writings are done as independent seat work. She asked a children's author to talk to her students about writing, and her students to respond to the author's talk. She uses students' calendar and oral weather reports to the class

as preparation for later written reports since these formulaic oral compositions have to demonstrate the conventions of written compositions: complete sentences, distance of author, decontextualizing, and audience awareness. These pre-texts were a transition between informal oral discourse and more formal written discourses. Mrs. B also worked with newspapers. She developed genre awareness by having her students cut up newspapers and make books of different types of newspaper writing: comics, sports pages, and advertisements. Students enriched their newspaper books by adding their own extensions such as cartoons with captions.

2. Environmental Print. Mrs. G and Barbara make use of environmental print materials displayed on bulletin boards which include:

- Logos from various products that could be found in the kitchen at home such as Blue Bonnet Butter, Campbells Soup, Jiffy Cake Mix, Van Camps Pork and Beans, Gerber Baby Food, Jello-O, Sunkist Raisins, Liptons Cup-of-Soup, Kool-Aid and Velveeta Cheese

- Packets of various flower seeds such as marigolds, and Snapdragons.

- Signs of various types (traffic, restroom, office, and directional)

- Charts with different titles attached to names of people known to the students such as Dr. Harste (researcher), Mr. (principal), Mrs. (teacher), Ms. (Secretary), Miss (Cook)

- Menu - Sausage pizza, Tossed green salad, Buttered corn, Fried fish.

- Calendars and weather reports

These items are used in reading lessons for practice in decoding.

3. Games and Drills. Barbara uses computer game software and Reader Digest Skill Builders.

4. Alphabet Learning. Connie uses alphabet worksheets only after her students learn how to read, believing the letters are then more meaningful.

5. Library Reading. Connie's students go to the school library and bring books to their classroom.

6. Study Guides. Joan assigns a popular novel for her students to read and then makes study guides and her own test for the novel. Her vocabulary exercises use new words in sentences from the novel. A vocabulary notebook is maintained by the entire group. Some of the questions on Joan's study guide and test are open-ended. However, her students eagerly read the entire novel on their own immediately after receiving it (before using any study guide with it) because they want to read it.

7. Word Processing/other Writings. Mary requires her students to use the computer in her room for composing the letters that they will send to a pen pal - a future special education teacher. Her students do other writing tasks, too, such as journal writing, predicting what a book will be about from its title (potential stories), teacher/student contracts, book reports, and written dialogues.

8. Reading Marathons. Mary encourages reading with a Read-A-Book marathon and uses her own money to support the marathon. She informs her students about authors by putting news clippings about their favorite authors on the bulletin board.

9. Song Lyrics. Mary uses hit songs as reading material.

10. Long Texts. Mary allows students to read a long text (2 pages) as independent seatwork using supplementary material formatted to resemble a newspaper (The Reading Connection). For example, they read Frankenstein, a text they were interested in reading.

PART IV: IDENTIFYING PROBLEMS: Conflicting Viewpoints

Models of Reading Comprehension

The materials that were selected from the special education classrooms provide a plethora of signs that indicate the underlying values and assumptions of the developers. The materials are an index of a model of literacy. The most striking finding of the analysis was the discrepancy between the model of literacy signaled by the materials and the model of literacy signaled by researchers and theoreticians' hypotheses for improving reading comprehension (Harste, 1985).

Special Education Materials: The Current Literacy Model.

Most special education materials assume that reading and writing are a set of skills to be mastered. The purpose of the materials is to present an extensive list of skills for teachers to teach and students to practice and review in a very structured albeit fragmented manner. The emphasis is on the concrete, specific factual details. If writing is taught at all, it is separated from reading and taught at a different time of the day, with different materials. (Often a handwriting book is considered a writing class.) Reading and writing as assumed to be unrelated to each other and both are assessed as products rather than as processes.

Decoding exercises dominate the materials. Students learn to translate from print to a spoken representation, i.e. phonics generalization, word analysis, and pronounciation. Decoding and spelling are the most critical aspects of this curriculum since print is not viewed as *language* but as a way of *recording language.*

Vocabulary is heavily emphasized in materials. Students practice on lists of words to be mastered by looking words up in a dictionary, using them in sentences, and memorizing them. Students must know the words *before* reading. The selections read are mostly narratives and comprehension is assessed by asking for concrete bits of detailed information that have brief, `correct' answers.

These "basic skills" - decoding, spelling, factual questioning - require a relatively low level of cognitive processing demand on the student and lend themselves to instruction that *stresses practice*. But, this model is not intellectually challenging for either teacher or student and is not based on what is currently known from research on reading comprehension instruction.

Reading Comprehension Theory and Research: A New of Literacy Model.

Theory. A significantly different model of literacy has emerged from the work of scholars from Vygotsky (1962) to Brown (1983) and Heath (1983). Their goal of schooling, and of literacy instruction especially, is the acquisition of a novel set of tools for using language to solve problems and to communicate (Calfee, 1985). Calfee points out that in this model of literacy, reading and writing are only the overt manifestations of a more fundamental change in language competence. Being literate in our modern, technological society requires having 1) the skills and knowledge to handle language as an object, and 2) an explicit and conscious sense of strategies and procedures for handling language - the metacognitive awareness and skills discussed by Brown (1978, 1983). Procedures and structures are seen as important as the content of a written message. Being able to understand the content or to write about content is a function of the prior knowledge/ schema that a person brings to the literacy task. This model of literacy would suggest that schooling and literacy instruction must have as its goals the acquisition and elaboration of new knowledge (schema) as well as the activation of prior knowledge for the content, procedures, and structures of formal written language. This model of literacy goes far beyond the basic skills model with its low level cognitive demands.

Research. Harste et. al. (Crisemore, (1985)) developed a list of hypotheses that researchers had tested over the last decade. They categorized these hypotheses into four basic types: 1) Dominant, 2) Non dominant but currently evolving, 3) Non dominant and pointing to future directions for practice, and 4) Bridging between the older dominant and newer not-yet-dominant hypotheses.

Table 10

Literacy will be improved when students from the start have opportunites for:

*Encountering whole, meaningful tests.

*Encountering expository, content area materials in addition to narratives.

*Encountering materials with elaborate previews, structured overviews, highlighted, repeated concepts, and high level questions in various locations.

*Encountering materials that teach the relationship of author, purpose and text organization and highlight the organizational structure of text.

*Following a cohesive chain of ideas through a text.

*Encountering materials packaged and presented in a wide variety of formats - materials with different print styles or packaged to resemble trade books.

*Assuming or taking a particular perspective(s) for purposes of interpretation.

*Building, activating, maintaining background subject matter knowledge for reading/writing texts.

*Developing mental expectations for general text types - (genre) - differences in format, organization, and kinds of evidence used to support claims.

*Taking risks for learning from texts or producing texts and having a non-threatening environment for learning to read and write.

*Developing positive attitudes toward reading, writing and content areas.

*Applying, flexibly, a variety of appropriate reading strategies when encountering something problematic in print; applying strategies already acquired to new settings; and developing new strategies.

*Encountering structured lesson frames which can be used to guide interactions with peers, teachers, and texts before, during, and after reading.

*Understanding how language functions and how the rules and features of language use change across reading contexts so that school reading relates realistically and functionally to non-school reading.

*Understanding how teacher/publisher expectations, beliefs, and instructional strategies affect student expectations, beliefs and behaviors for reading and writing.

*Relating the materials students use to cultural strengths and backgrounds.

*Discovering how oral, visual, and kinesthetic modalities might be effectively used to facilitate learning to be literate.

*Learning strategies for improving inferencing abilities (drawing conclusions, making generalizations, etc....).

*Learning strategies that help with better monitoring of on-line meaning and recall of main ideas and factual details.

*Learning strategies for identifying important elements in texts (theme, plot, sequence, story-line)/(thesis, support, lines of reasoning).

*Developing and then elaborating mental constructs (schemas/maps) for relatively new concepts and ideas in texts.

*Learning to read critically/reflectively (distinguishing fact from opinion, weighing evidence, etc....).

*Engaging more actively in predicting texts and testing hypotheses.

*Summarizing by coherently reducing and organizing what they have read in written prose and visual displays.

*Recasting meanings gained through reading into alternative communications systems (writing; visual displays: pictures, charts, tables, diagrams, maps; drama; music; and mathematics).

*Using metaphors and analogies to make connections between past experiences and prior knowledge in order to build new knowledge (schema).

The current special education materials model of literacy seem to be based on hypotheses not yet tested at all or those in the older, Dominant category. There was no evidence that the developers of the materials were aware of the newly evolving and forward-looking hypotheses about reading comprehension and literacy. This lack of awareness and application of recent research to the design of materials used for literacy instruction is a significant problem.

The list of hypothesis and three major trends addressed many of the problems found in the special education materials, but several problems identified in the analysis were not on the list of researched hypotheses.

The Relationship between Reading and Writing

Writing was not an integral part of the instructional program observed, yet literacy implies competence in both reading and writing and research has shown that reading experiences improve writing ability and writing experiences improve reading ability (Stotsky, 1984). Reading and writing are both composing processes. Both are cognitive processes dependent on schema for content, text structures, and discoursing strategies (Crismore, 1983). Instructional materials at present encourage the separateness of reading and writing. A new model of literacy requires an integration of the two throughout the school day. Writing must be encouraged in reading and content area classes and reading must be encouraged in writing and content areas with instructional materials drawing on and emphasizing the commonalities of both. Developers of materials must help readers acquire the rhetorical awareness and expanded view of reading comprehension they will need in the workplace after schooling (Guthrie, 1985). This involves understanding author/reader relationships, the interpersonal function of language, the attitudes of the author toward the content and the reader; the credibility of the author; and the accuracy of the content. This means that materials must help learners understand the interpersonal and textual functions of language as well as the ideational (Halliday, 1985), the rhetorical and cognitive aspects of literacy (Crismore, 1984).

Learning Theories

The analysis of the documents and field notes provided little evidence that the materials encouraged collaborative learning. The materials were typically used by students as independent seatwork or in small groups where the students engaged in teacher/student interactions such as answering teacher questions or responding to teacher directives to read materials orally in a round-robbin manner. Yet research by Brown & her colleagues (1982, 1984 in press), based on Vygotsky's notion of a developmental progression from social-to-individual cognitive processing (1978), shows that comprehension - fostering activities in social learning situations resulted in substantial improvements in the ability of children at risk for academic failure to learn from texts. Research on the development of children's writing ability similarly indicates the value of peer conferencing and peer editing for the improvement of writing (Crismore, 1983; Tierney & Leys, 1985).

The perspective underlying this research claims that children first experience a particular set of problem-solving activities in the presence of others and only gradually come to perform these functions for themselves. It is argued that cognitive skills, (including those of comprehension-fostering and monitoring and producing coherent texts) develop normally via a process whereby an adult or other knowledgable learner demonstrates models and prompts their use and learners gradually adopt such activities as part of their own repertoire. These mediated learning activities (Feurstein, 1979, 1980) are more likely to happen in regular classrooms with average or above average learners because these students have had more relevant experience and therefore are well-prepared to take part in these activities. There is evidence from the analysis of special education materials and other sources (Brown, 1984) that teachers and materials give less experience in this learning mode to those, who, because of their lack of prior experience, need it most. Special education materials, then, must encourage 1) reciprocal learning dyads of peers and teacher/students, and 2) groups of peers who respond and react reflectively to each other in an attempt to build or activate content knowledge and develop learning strategies.

Visual Displays

Another problem pinpointed by the analysis was the lack of visual displays other than pictures for helping students comprehend what they read or recast their knowledge for themselves or others in a different sign system. Some evidence was found that materials require students to draw a picture of what they read, but this was usually on a word, phrase/clause, or sentence level in commercial materials. Materials typically did not ask students to make mental images or draw pictures of what was to be read or was read. A few teacher-made materials asked students to draw a picture of a word they couldn't spell or what they had written about in a composition, but this was not the pattern.

No evidence was found of materials requiring students to make sematic maps for story/expository text elements; tables; charts; diagrams; or maps. Yet research shows that visual presentations of text elements (sematic mapping) before reading (Sinatra, Stahl, Germake, Berg, 1984) or after reading helps improve the reading comprehension of disabled readers and suggests it may also help with the organizational skills needed for writing. Cohen and Stover (1981) demonstrated the value of having students draw diagrams of difficult texts for improving comprehension. Because visual displays are used extensively in school materials, newspapers, television and the workplace, a new model of literacy will include visual literacy. Materials must reflect this expanded view of lieteracy and encourage activities for improving visual literacy.

These problems are but a sample of those indicated by the study of special education materials. They cause us to ask to what extent the difference between regular students and those labeled special education students an artifact of instructional materials as well as instruction. In special education classrooms students do not have the opportunity to read or write, and thus, develop schema for different text types and literacies. Students who have not yet developed effective strategies for forming and organizing schema for incoming experiences do not find help in materials for activating, elaborating, and maintaining schema as they read and write. Nor do they find help for self-questioning and monitoring.

Stephens (1985) discusses a number of research studies that support the notion that special education students are learning - inefficient rather than learning deficient and that they may be as capable of engaging in higher level cognitive processing (e.g. drawing inferences) as their non-labeled peers, given the appropriate instruction, materials and tasks. It is plausible to think that what is effective for one population is also effective for the other. The developers of special education materials must go beyond the present task-specific goals to a higher goal of "learning how to learn to be literate". This higher goal is an imperative if special education students are to function adequately in our complex, literacy-bound society.

The Beckys and Mitches in special education classrooms may not have the materials they need to achieve both kinds of goals unless material developers re-examine their assumptions about research and reflect about the following agenda.

1. Increasing the availability and variety of special education materials to ease the present shortage and narrowness.

2. Providing real purposes for school and non-school reading and writing.

3. Providing for a range of texts to be read and written.

4. Providing materials that lend themselves to critical, evaluative reading.

5. Providing tasks that reflect the composing process (planning, monitoring, rereading/revising).

6. Guiding students from teacher/text dependence to independence.

7. Encouraging social learning groups that balance discussion and silent reading.

8. Balancing the goal of learning content with the goals of learning about language features and functions (especially the interpersonal function) and learning how-to-learn strategies.

9. Using summarizing (written and graphic) and retellings (oral and written) as assessment tools.

10. Encouraging students to silently read texts with natural language (texts that give students opportunities to see normal topic progressions and to make high level inferences).

PART V IDENTIFYING POTENTIALS

Materials have the potential for what can and cannot happen, for developing students' cognitive abilities, long-term attitudes, and temporary mental states. Publishers (and occassionally teachers) determine the nature of the materials, and thus, their potential for meaning and learning. When the materials being used in classrooms do not fit newer research-based models of literacy, teachers and students can develop their own material and modify the existing materials for a closer fit. In addition to developing their own new materials or modifying existing materials, they can supplement these by using trade books and environmental print.

Materials / Activities From Non-Commercial Sources

Much of the potential for learning materials in special education classrooms lies in non-commercial materials - the materials developed by professional and local authors, teachers, and students.

1. Building Functional Skills

Teachers can develop functional materials to build literacy and life skills. An activity that helps students 1) select the important ideas from the less important ideas, 2) elaborate by giving the reasons why the ideas are significant, 3) transform the ideas into different communication systems, and 4) become independent language learners is illustrated by Mrs. B's "story starter" activity that she uses as independent seat work. The students share their writings with the class and with their parents.

1. Tell me the five most important things to remember to take on a trip to see a friend, grandmother, or Florida (tell me what.)

2. Tell me why you would take them.

3. Draw me a picture (or a chart, table, map).

4. Try to sound out words you can't spell. If you can't sound them out, draw a picture.

(If I were going on a trip and could only take 5 things with me to ______________, I would take _______________ because ____.

This activity could be further expanded by having students engage in individual or group planning before writing, conferencing with teacher and peers while the writing is in-progress or after different drafts are completed, and `publishing' the in-progress plans, drafts and final products of the class in books or computer message boards.

2. Using Environmental Texts

Teacher or student-developed materials based on environmental print, visual displays, or spoken discourse are other good sources for special education materials. There were several examples of environmental materials in the set of documents that were analyzed:

Bulletin Board:

* Can you read these labels? (Blue Bonnet Butter, Campbells Soup, Jell-O)
* Classroom Rules
* Posters
* Lunch Menus
* Titles of Books (for predicting potential stories/selections)
* Record covers (for domain-related vocabulary, comprehension, etc.)
* Song Lyrics
* Tape/text sets
* Video tapes (School and Non-school events)
* Student handbook from the school
* Computer Manual (and other manuals for audio-visual and equipment.

School Announcements/Materials

* School activity announcements on the intercom
* School forms for students, teachers, parents, staff.
* School newspaper, yearbook
* Bus regulations

Mass Media

* Jokes/stories from TV shows (e.g. Mary's "Johnny Carson Story")
* Print and visuals from newspapers, computer software)
* Calendars and weather reports

These environmental materials give students real purposes for learning to read and write and make school literacy learning more functional. Many of the materials such as the calendar and weather reports can be used for oral composing or `pre-texts' as Mrs. B does in her classroom. She uses a formulaic approach with features of written language for her students' oral reports to the class. The reports could be on daily or weekly events:

Today is ______________________.
Today the weather is __________________.
The menu for today is ________________________________.
The agenda for today's activities is ______________________.

The bare outline for the oral reports is elaborated by students with prompting questions by Mrs. B The elaborations give students a sense of how to use details to flesh out the basic outline for more information and interest. The formula gives students needed repetition and elaboration gives them chances for creativity.

3. Using Student Responses

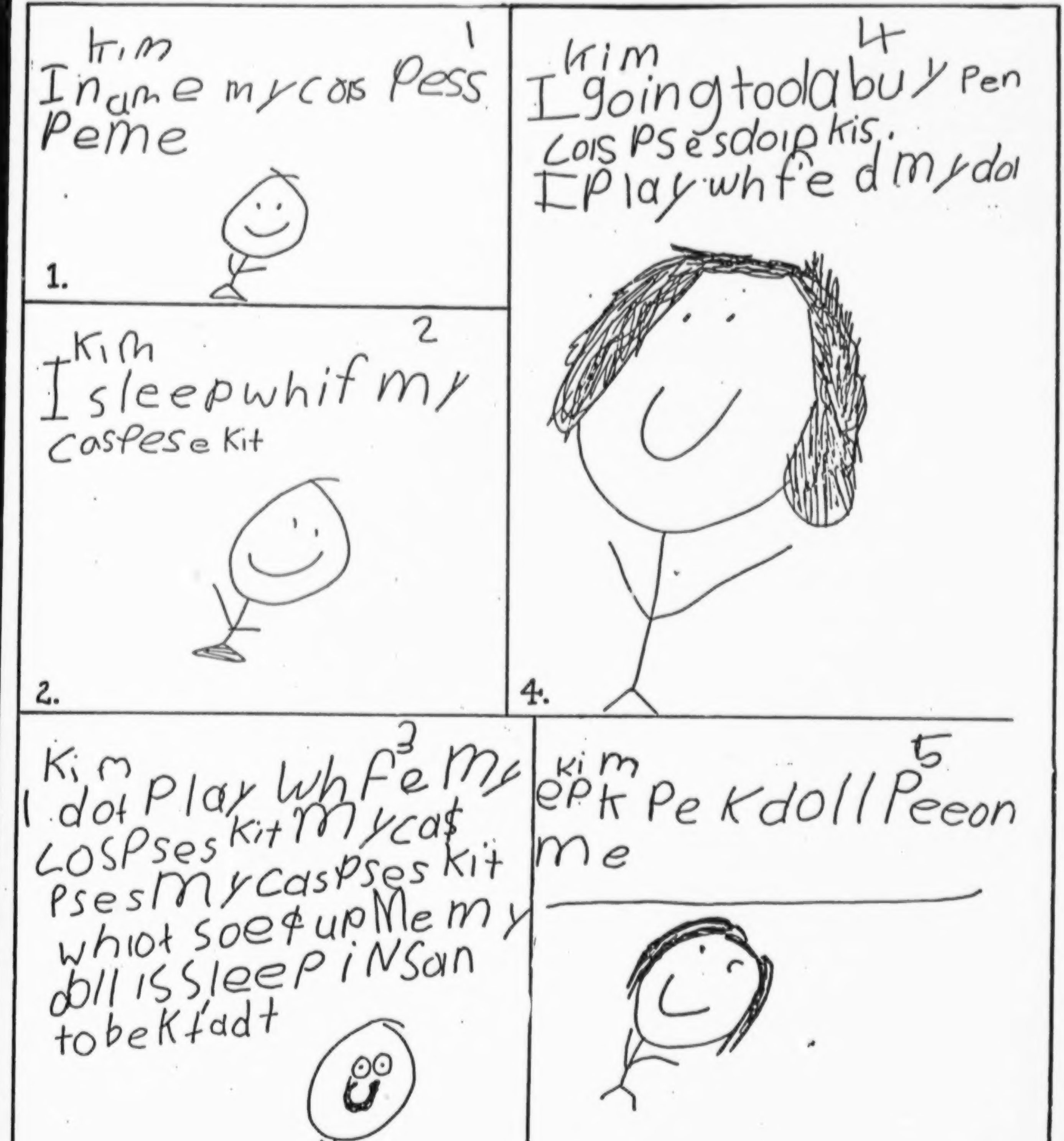
Teachers can capitalize on students' unexpected responses to questions or activities. For instance, the surprising student responses to the Chicago Mastery activity on describing words/adjectives could be turned into creative writing assignments for poems/stories or into expositiory science reports on the topics of the activity. The following student responses could be used for a variety of creative task:

Snowy grass
Muddy grass
Green elephants
Dry snow
Icy pillows
Cold rocks
Gletchy mud

Student answers that are approximations or unexpected, surprising, yet plausible answers should be seen as signs of growth, and as potentials for materials.

4. Using Authors and Publishers

Local authors can be asked to visit special education classrooms and talk to students about the craft of writing and reading texts as did the author who came to Mrs. B's classroom. Students profit from exposure to real authors and to information about authors of fiction and content area materials given in text materials. Students can write their own composition as a response to an author's visit or to a reading of an authors book. They can also write to authors/publishers conveying their responses/reflections and critical evaluations of a text. Students can then be used as informants for teachers, authors, and publishers in order to improve the quality of learning materials. Kim wrote the following response to author Jerome Harste's discussion of one of his books, My Icky Picky Sister when he visited Kim's special education classroom.


kim
1
I name mycas Pess Peme
1.
Kim
2
I sleep whif my caspese kit
2.
Kim
3
I dot Play whFe my cosPses kit mycas Pses my caspses kit whiot soe up Me my doll is sleeP iN San tobe Kfadt
3.
kim
4
I going tool a buy Pen cois Ps e sdoip kis.
I Play whfe d my dol
4.
kim
5
eP k Pe k doll Peeon me
5.

Student-written texts like Kim's and the dialogues written down by a student `scriptor' for two peers who dictate a conversation in Mary's classroom are valuable materials for teaching comprehension and writing conventions and for building positive attitudes toward literacy learning, peers, and self. In the following example, Tim acted as the scriptor and Wayne and Greg the dialogue participants:

> "What did you do last night, Greg?"
> Wayne said,
> "I watch TV." Greg said,
> "I didn't Because I was working." Wayne said
> "After I got done whatching TV I unloaded some feed!" Greg said.
> "After I got done working I rode my Three wheeler." Wayne said.

Other Potential Materials

1. Trade books (fiction and non-fiction) as replacements for reading and content area basal text books.

2. Student/teacher logs of different kinds shared with and responded to by others. (Learning logs, reading logs, writing logs, critical thinking/reflection logs, etc. . .)

3. Student/teacher contracts.

4. Student reading and listening notes on the same topic, integrated and put into structured overview visuals, outlines, elaborated, and then turned into an essay, etc.

5. Letters to authors, publishers, teachers, school officials, and peers.

6. Teacher lesson plans from teachers' manuals and tests with rationales, objectives for students, purposes, procedures, etc. Students are then `insiders' and can learn or teach their peers the lesson or test more effectively.

7. Articles about special education on topics that special education students might want to know more about: dyslexia, deafness, and learning disablity. Students are often highly motivated to read and write on these topics and are willing to handle challenging materials.

8. Letters and forms representing three-way written communication between teacher/parent/student which can be kept in a folder accessible to the students.

9. IEPs, Curriculum guides, course syllabi and lesson plans for other classrooms. Students can then get an overall view of the objectives for themselves and can see how their lessons, subjects, and classes all fit together (articulation).

Modifying Commercial Materials

1. Scripted Lessons

Teachers can first tape and then give students copies of scripted lessons from the Chicago Mastery Learning program or Caught Reading program to read as they listen and later to read independently at their seats.

The scripted lessons from the Chicago Mastery program and the Caught Reading program appear to be well-written. They provide a range of sentence patterns, a variety of topic progression types, an appropriate level of vocabulary, and a warm, interpersonal tone. They illustrate well the three macro functions of language discussed by Halliday (1985): the identional/referential, the interpersonal, and the textual. Therefore, they can be used as tools for teaching students about how language is used for different functions, and because they exemplify natural language, they can be used as models for student writing.

Teachers can give their students opportunities for reading texts that require higher level processing than do the texts they typically read on their worksheets or in their basals. The explanations about how to learn a new word and why it is important or significant for the student can be used as a model for teaching students how to learn and why they should learn higher level strategies for comprehending sentences and whole texts, monitoring their comprehension, and transferring to other texts. Students could, for instance, picture/image events, characters, or ideas rather than words.

Pre-lesson activities to activate prior knowledge (displaying lists of students' knowledge of a topic on the blackboard, charts, or on paper by students in a group) will help insure that students answers the questions.
Students can play the role of teacher for their peers, reading the scripts as a pre/post lesson activity. Teachers and students can add higher level comprehension questions to factual, detail questions and ask for extended answers first in discussions and then in writing.

2. Worksheets

Commercial worksheets can be modified or extended. Picture sequences (a chick hatching from an egg, a boy catching a fish) can be used for oral and written composing activities with different genre as products (tell/write me a little story about this; tell/write me a report, an encyclopedia article; tell/write me a letter, etc.)

A word or phrase on a phonics worksheet or a sentence on a Cause/Effect or Language Arts worksheet can be used as a stimulus for a composition tied to a content area subject (math, science, social studies). Students can draw pictured or structured overviews, maps, diagrams, or charts before and after they write as strategies for activating, transforming, elaborating, or retaining knowledge about a topic. Student-generated questions of different types based on these compositions can be used for self-checking or for collaborative learning. Students can also clarify, elaborate, or modify the tone of worksheet directions.

Students can modify topic sentence/detail paragraphs by adding connectors between sentences, expanding sentences, re-arranging words and phrases, adding sentences, and improving the flow of information between sentences.

3. Testing Materials. Students can also modify testing materials and ask for peer response to their improvements as a way to improve critical thinking, reading, and writing. Short texts can be expanded, sentences can be combined and re-arranged, and connectors used between sentences.

The texts can be written for different audiences - younger brothers and sisters, older friends, and adults in different roles in order to encourage students to shift perspectives for reading and writing. They can generate questions that ask about the content, the features of language, the rhetorical, situational context (audience), the authors craft of writing, and the reader's craft of reading (strategies) and teaching/learning strategies for themselves and peers.

Developing materials that teach students how to learn as well as teach content, and that provide the range of texts, tasks, and collaborative learning situations students need is a labor intensive endeavor. But however expensive in time, effort, and money, special education materials must become potentials for literacy teaching and learning. Our present materials often distort literacy learning, and are thus, disfunctional because of their inappropriate notions of literacy. Teachers and students must be `turned loose' to develop functional, creative special education materials and thus provide alternatives and supplements to commercial materials. Only then will the Beckys and Mitches have the furninshings and tools they need for the literacy learning world they find in their special education classrooms.

CONCLUSION

We conclude from the previous description and analysis of special education materials and researcher footnotes that special education students are at risk when it comes to literacy. The findings from the content analysis of the materials and the application of the taxonomy provide a great deal of evidence that special education students will find it difficult, if not impossible, to learn to read with understanding or to write for self-discovery, for expression or for communication. This means they will no doubt be locked away from most of the stored knowledge of civilization. They will be unable to enter the limitless arena of thought, imagination, exploration and enjoyment. They will be unable to stop and reflect on what they read and to think intensely and critically about a given subject. They will be unable to organize ideas from a variety of sources and to fulfill personal needs and interests. Based on the results of this study, it seems that special education students are in jeopardy of leaving school without attaining the literacy competencies necessary for informed citizenship and self fulfillment.

It is clear that if special education students are to view literacy as useful, desirable, pleasurable, and attainable, it is imperative that special education educators and material developers offer these students the best reading and writing programs possible. Improving these programs is essential to the process of creating a literate special education population.

A first step in initiating in this process is the development of standards and guide lines that will help insure special education materials that are well written and that reflect what is known from theory and research about how students learn to think, read and write. Without a comprehensive program of teacher education; however, the improvement of instructional materials is meaningless. This second step - providing teachers 1) encouragement to reexamine their beliefs about reading and writing, 2) opportunities to learn about the new model of literacy and 3) help in developing, selecting, and using quality materials along with improved commercial materials - becomes the basis for special education classrooms.

We hope this chapter has help set the stage for re-evalution of special education literacy models and the development of standards and guidelines for improved special education materials. We also hope it has contributed to teacher ownership of the design, selection and use of special education materials.

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Economy Company, P. O. Box 68502, 5455 W. 84th St., Indianapolis, IN 46268

Fearon-Pitman Publishers, Inc., 6 Davis Drive, Belmont, CA 94002

Globe Book Co., New York, New York

Hammond, 515 Valley Street, Maplewood, New Jersey 07040

Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., CBS, Inc., 5925 Peachtree Industrial Blvd., Chamblee, GA 30341

Houghton Mifflin Co., Midwest Regional Office, 1900 S. Batavia Ave., Geneva, IL 60134

Instructional Fair, Inc., Elma Avenue, Akron, OH 44310

Janus Book Publishers, 2501 Industrial Pkwy., West, Hayward, CA 94545

Laidlaw Brothers (division of Doubleday), Thatcher and Madison, River Forest, IL 60305

MacMillan Co., Inc., Front and Brown Streets, Riverside, NJ 08370

Merrill Publishing Co., A Bell and Howell Co., 1300 Alum Creek Drive, Columbus, OH 43216

Modern Curriculum Press, 13900 Prospect Rd., Cleveland, OH 44136

Open Court Publishing Co., P.O. Box 599, La Salle, IL 61301

Reader's Digest Services, Inc., Educational Division, Pleasantville, NY 10570

Schaffer, Frank, 26616 Indian Peak Rd., Dept. 46, Rancho Palos Verdes, CA 90274

Scholastic Book Service, 904 Sylvan Ave., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Scholastic Magazines, 902 Sylvan Ave., Englewood Cliffs, NJ 07632

Science Research Association, Inc., 155 N Wacher Dr., Chicago, IL 60606

Scott, Foreman and Co., Goodyear Books, 1900 E. Lake Ave., Glenview, IL 60025

Steck - Vaughn Co., P.O. Box 2028, Austin, TX 78768

Troll Associates, 320 Route 17 Mahwah, NJ 07430

Quercus Corporation, Cast to Valley, California

Weekly Reader, 1250 Fairwood Ave., P.O. Box 16618, Columbus, OH 43216

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SECTION IV

GUIDELINES

Chapter 8

BECOMING A NATION OF LANGUAGE LEARNERS: BEYOND RISK

Jerome C. Harste
Indiana University

INTRODUCTION

This document is written to help teachers, administrators, and school board members establish public school policy relative to the teaching of reading and writing. The recommendations which follow evolve from a state-of-knowledge assessment of reading comprehension research and a state-of-practice assessment of reading comprehension instruction. The assumption is made that sound instructional practices and policies grow out of what we currently know. By taking this stance, it follows that instructional practices and policies which are not grounded in the current knowledge base -- or worse, violate what is currently known -- constitute forms of miseducation.

Educational policies which fail to support the learning of everyone -- including the student, the teacher, the administrator, and the policy maker -- are neither educational nor sound. Learning occurs when individuals have the opportunity to work at the forefront of their knowledge base. Neither education nor learning is served by the testing of weak hypotheses.

The functions of policy, like curriculum, are to give perspective and clarify direction. To establish educational policies which background rather than foreground learning is to engage in something other than education. Complacent, overconfident, and simplistic responses to complex issues do not result in sound educational policy.

With these preparatory remarks serving as a frame, it might be well to restate that the purpose of this document is to help teachers, administrators, and school board members establish sound educational policy relative to their school reading and writing program. The report evolves from a program of research designed to assess current practice in light of, and in contrast to, an assessment of what we currently know. In that sense it is different than most previous attempts to set public policy on literacy which, even when grounded in research, have demonstrated little understanding of practice.

I use major issues raised during our state-of-knowledge and state-of-practice assessment of reading comprehension instruction as an organizational device. This structure allows me to confront current assumptions about the teaching of reading and to discuss available alternatives. Within this structure, traditional and current topics in reading and writing such as "Teacher Competency," "The Relationship between Research and Practice," "Direct Instruction," "Basals," "Phonics and Beginning Reading," "Time-on-task," "Testing," "New Directions in Reading Comprehension Research," "Reading as a Tool for Learning" and "Leadership for Change" are examined.

This report is an attempt to synthesize and align current thinking and practice relative to the teaching of reading. Although most topics are ones about which reasonable persons can disagree, to grow scientifically is to grow collaboratively and to build from experience. The goal, in this sense, is the development of policies which support a practical theory of literacy and literacy instruction. This report and the envisoned policies offer no panaceas, only the promise of progress through participation and learning.

EXAMINING ISSUES AND ASSUMPTIONS

The Big Problem in Teaching Reading is Teacher Competency

This item addresses what we see as a common attitude underlying many of the recent reports on the status of education in our society.[.01] The argument takes many forms: Teachers aren't well prepared; they aren't effective; they don't know how to teach. Reading comprehension is rarely taught in schools; mostly it is tested and corrected.[.02] Literacy is on the decline.[.03]

During our field study we were struck by how many administrators, teachers, and school board members have accepted the assumptions inherent in this attitude and have developed rather restrictive school policies accordingly. Before these assumptions are taken as truth, it is important that they be examined carefully.

Teachers are Not Effective

First, let us examine the notion of whether or not teachers are effective in their jobs. Probably the most concise and yet most convincing evidence on this point is the data which Diane DeFord reported.[.04] She asked persons advocating three alternate approaches to the teaching of reading to nominate the teacher in the country who most effectively utilized their preferred approach to the teaching of reading. She then spent from three to six months in each of these classrooms collecting reading and writing samples, videotape recordings, and the like.

Figure 1 presents representative uninterrupted writing data from each of these classrooms. In the phonics classroom, where phonics was the dominant mode and focus of instruction in reading, children, when asked to write, produced sentences such as, "I had a

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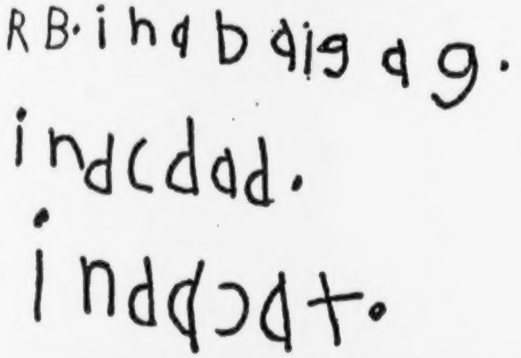
● = Numbers in text (.01 through .0196) refer to footnotes found at the end of the chapter.

Figure 1. Uninterrupted Writing Samples: Phonics, Skills, & Whole Language Classrooms

Reed: Phonics Room



RB·i hq b qig q g.

indcdad.

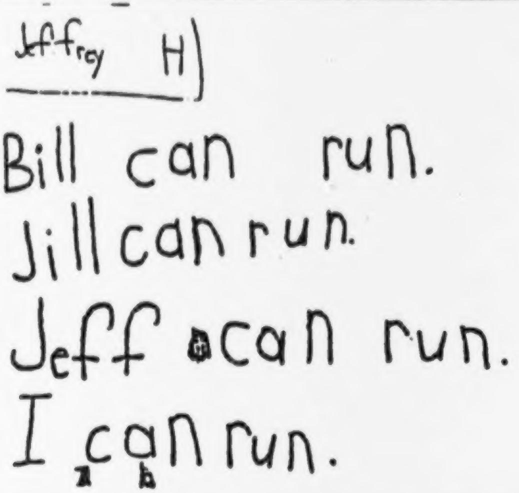
inddɔdt.

(I had a gag.)

(I had a dad.)

(I had a cat.)

Jeffrey and Amy: Skills Room



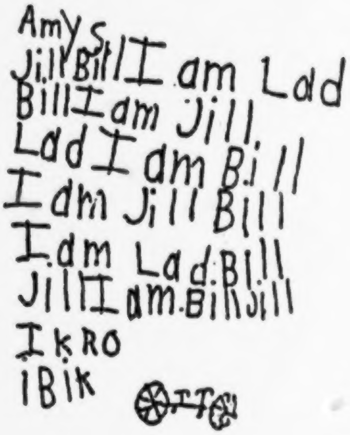
Jeffrey H

Bill can run.

Jill can run.

Jeff can run.

I can run.



Amy S.

Jill Bill I am Lad

Bill I am Jill.

Lad I am Bill

I am Jill Bill

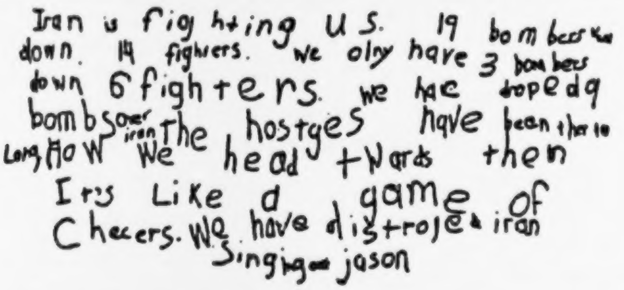
I am Lad. Bill

Jill I am. Bill Jill

I kRO

iBik

Jason: Whole Language Room



Iran is fighting U.S. 19 bombers down

down. 14 fighers. We olny have 3 bombers

down 6 fighters. We hae dropeda

bombs over iran The hostges have been ther to

Long How We head twards then

Its Like a game of

Checers. We have distroje iran

Singing jason

gag...I had a dad...I had a cat."

In the skills classroom, where the focus of beginning instruction had been on the development of a sight vocabulary through flash cards and simple stories made up of these words, children produced sentences such as, "Bill can run....Jill can run...Jeff can run....I can run...etc."

Though in both these classrooms children limited what they wrote to what they had been taught formally in the classroom by the teacher, the writing looked different in predictable ways. In the phonics classroom, children played with letter/sound patterns. In the skills classroom, children played with words and generated sentences by substituting one known word for another.

This same pattern held in reading. In the phonics classroom, the dominant strategy was sounding out. Children often made multiple attempts at words and produced nonsense words when this strategy failed (e.g., "turntell" for 'turtles'). In the skills classroom, children tended to substitute words that had been introduced in instruction for words they perceived to be spelled similarly (e.g., "should" for 'sound;' "so" for 'she')(.05)

Rather than use what they knew about language to augment what the teacher was doing, children in both classrooms limited the strategies they used to those which the teacher had taught. Children in both the phonics and skills classrooms assumed that what they knew about reading prior to coming to school was no longer useful.

The third classroom that DeFord studied was a whole language classroom. Here children were encouraged to read or pretend to read from the first day of class. Children were taken on an environmental print walk the first day of school and asked to find something they could read. That evening they were sent home to find things in their cupboards that they could read. The teacher then had the children put these labels in a book and write -- doing the best they could -- anything that they wanted to say about the label. These were shared by the author with the other children and parents.

Instruction in reading began with shared reading. Predictable books like The Three Little Pigs, Little Red Hen, The Great Big Enormous Turnip and others were read orally, first as a group and later individually by the children. Because these stories were familiar, children were invited to chime in whenever they could. Children were invited to make books using the patterns of language in the stories that were read.(06)

The third sample in Figure 1 shows a typical writing sample from this first grade classroom. Jason, in this instance, was playing the role of reporter. His newspaper article gives a status report on United States-Iranian relations. In contrast to the other samples, Jason's story is striking. Unlike the children in the phonics and skills classroom, Jason uses a wide range of vocabulary, sentence structures, and what he knows about reporting to get his article to sound like the kind of report that would be found in a newspaper.

DeFord could find no evidence at the start of the year that the groups of children in these classrooms were fundamentally different from each other in terms of background.(07) Given the pervasive influence of instruction, however, direct comparisons are difficult. The strategies each group of children used reflected the strategies taught in their instructional settings. In the classroom in which children were invited to test a wide set of hypotheses they essentially did so; in the classrooms in which the strategies of instruction were more limited, the strategies children used reflected the same restrictions.

One thing this data says is that instruction is effective. While we may prefer what children in some classrooms did over and above what they did in other classrooms, the overall trend is important: children learned what their teachers taught.(08)

A second thing these data suggest is more subtle, but equally important. Children tend to use strategies in the way they are taught.

Given our extended observations in a wide variety of classrooms and our reading of hundreds of research reports, we concur with these findings. In classroom after classroom, children reconfirm these patterns. In instructional study after instructional study these patterns continue. Findings inevitably confirm the fact that any instructional treatment is effective. If phonics is stressed, children do well on phonics tests. If vocabulary development is stressed, children do well on vocabulary tests. If inferencing is studied, children do well on measures of inference. If children are asked to apply what they have been taught in ways other than the way in which it was taught, they do less well than children taught and tested on parallel forms.(09)

The issue, then, is not whether instruction is effective, but -- if anything -- whether or not it is too effective. Teachers, this evidence suggests, take teaching seriously, and children, by the same evidence, take their teachers seriously. The real issue is not teacher competency but whether or not we are teaching children what we ought to be teaching in the name of literacy. This is a quite different, but more pertinent, issue.

Reading Comprehension is Not Taught

If children learn what it is that we teach, setting up the most useful classroom environment becomes important. In some sense we pretend our way into literacy. To be successful, language learners read the context of situation in which they find themselves and produce a text which they see as reasonable or appropriate. Reseachers have found that poor readers are often in trouble because they take the teacher's game too seriously. These readers have what is called 'an instructionally dependent attitude' -- trying only those things that were explicitedly taught and nothing more. While the readers in DeFord's study were not in trouble, this game-like process is quite evident. If the children in the phonics classroom were suddenly placed in the whole language classroom, we can safely assume they not only would have to, but would, learn how to play the new game. (09a)

Children as language learners are survivors. When constraints change, so do language and performance. Understanding this basic process in literacy learning makes the reading programs we design all the more important. In light of what we currently know, such programs ought to be comprehension-focused.

Linguists, for example, tell us that meaning is what language is all about. Without meaning language is nonsense. No one reads to sound out words. No one writes to see how many words they can spell correctly. Reading and writing are social events which have as their purposes communication and learning. (010)

Reading research reveals that good readers read for meaning, monitor their reading as they read, are critical rather than accepting of what they read, and summarize, generalize, and try to make sense of what they are reading in light of what they already know. (011) We know now that while these processes vary in specific detail, they are universals in reading. (012) We also know that reading is driven by a search for a unified meaning or text. (013)

Reading researchers define reading as the process of constructing meaning through a dynamic interaction among the reader's existing knowledge, the information suggested by the written language, and the context of the reading situation. (014) This definition emphasizes the interactive, constructive, and dynamic nature of the reading process. The term interaction is used to indicate that reading is an act of communication that is dependent not only on the knowledge and skill of the author, but on the knowledge and skill of the reader as well. The term constructive is used to indicate that meaning is something that cannot simply be extracted from a text, but rather that it must be actively created in the mind of the reader from the integration of prior knowledge with the information suggested by the text. The term dynamic is used to indicate that the reading process is variable, not static, adapting to the specific demands of each particular reading experience. This definition recognizes that reading will vary from situation to situation, and that skilled reading is strategic involving the ability to tailor one's activities to the demands of each reading situation. (015)

This definition contrasts quite drastically with a definition of reading one might infer from watching instruction being taught in classrooms. While there are some classrooms that focus children's attention on comprehension and meaning during instruction, and no classroom which totally ignored comprehension, still, in most classrooms, more could and should be done.

In the best classrooms trade books were readily available and uninterrupted time was scheduled for students to read and critically discuss what they made of the selection in relationship to a topic of interest they were studying. Good comprehension instruction seemed to be planned to permit *activity* (time to read; time to really engage) as well as *reflexivity* (time to discuss what was learned; time to discuss what reading strategies were or were not useful).

In the worst settings vocabulary study replaced real reading and discussions were kept minimal and at a literal level. In all too many low reading groups no invitations were offered to encourage children to think critically, nor was this type of thinking demonstrated to the children by the teacher. This was particularly serious since these children were ability grouped and hence did not have the benefit of learning from more successful readers. In some instances the assumption that children couldn't read led teachers to design lessons which permitted children to circumvent reading as a tool for learning. In too many classrooms reading was treated as a silent, private act which one must master on one's own. When the program was 'individualized' no discussion was possible as everyone was working on separate reading assignments. Discussion and collaboration were seen as forms of 'cheating' as opposed to support. 015a

In good classrooms more successful readers were paired with less successful readers and children were encouraged to "talk their way through the reading with a partner." The focus of these classrooms was on making meaning and on sharing understandings with peers during and after reading. Class discussions synthesized insights and helped students search for and create a unified meaning. Children were asked to reflect on what they had learned as well as identify what they still had to find out.

Good reading comprehension instruction reflected recent insights into comprehension and learning. There is no doubt that reading instruction would be greatly improved in most classrooms if we but began to apply what we currently know about reading comprehension in the design of our instructional activities.

Practically there are three important curricular guidelines which emanate from research in linguistics and reading comprehension. *The first is that there is no way to learn a process other than through engaging in that process*. Over and over again research shows that providing time and a supportive environment for critical reading leads to children reading critically, that encouraging inferencing leads to better inferencing, that opportunities to summarize lead to growth in summarizing, and so on 016. Curricularly this means that we must make time to work on comprehension; children have to have on-going opportunities to use the strategies we associate with successful readers and writers. The easiest way to do this is by providing daily invitations to do real reading and real writing for real purposes. Even, however, in more restrictive environments, an expanded list of comprehension skills could easily be generated and skill lists inverted so that reading for meaning precedes such skill work as phonics, word meaning, and the recall of detail -- things which now consume so much time that teachers and children never get to the strategies involved in making sense of reading, or comprehension. As one first grade teacher told us: "Meaning? We don't get to that until the end of the year and sometimes not even then!" (Mrs. R., Field Notes).

The second curricular insight is that much of what anyone knows about reading, writing, critical thinking, and the like, is learned from being in the presence of others engaged in these processes rather than from direct instruction 017. Curricularly, this means that it is important that children not only engage in reading, writing, and thinking, but that they have opportunities to share, to discuss, and to be around more proficient readers and writers. This is why, from a language learning perspective, homogeneous grouping (tracking) is such a questionable practice. From our observations of practice, it not only institutionalizes elitism, but leads to curricular inflexibility, mediocrity, paternalism, and assumptiveness often under the guise of individualized instruction. Even further it miscommunicates. Regular education teachers do not talk with special education teachers. Even the best students come to see language learning as involving competition rather than collaboration.

Under ideal conditions, reading and writing are presented as functional, collaborative events that are enhanced through active participation and partnership. This is why in the best schools and classrooms we observed school administrators came in and read with children, teachers read and wrote in front of and with children, and sharing times and young author conferences were an integral part of curriculum.

Third, a good curriculum, according to the evidence we have, provides opportunities not only to engage in and see demonstrated the strategies of successful written language use and learning, but also provides opportunities to come to value these strategies. Part of this valuing comes as a function of engagement. Another part comes as a function of being in a community of readers and writers. A third part is more deliberate. It is an attempt to bring aspects of the process to a level of conscious awareness 018. While researchers are uncertain how aware readers and writers are of the strategies they use, for instructional purposes, it is probably enough that children be invited to share and talk about what worked and didn't work when they were reading a book, interpreting a poem, or working on a research report. In sharing children get confirmation, find out what options are available, and what new strategies might be tried. Good teachers use the anomalous response as an invitation for the group to grow on ("Tommy said that he 'argued with the author' as he read...Why don't we all try to do that when we read the next section?").

If what learners value is not confirmed by others, then knowledge atrophies. For example, some researchers found that children, after only 20 days of phonics instruction, had abandoned every other reading strategy except sounding words out despite the fact that at 3, 4, and 5 years old they used a much wider and more powerful set of strategies.(019) Teachers in this study often talked about good instructional practices they used to use, but which they abandoned.

Literacy is on the Decline

One of the reasons that literacy appears to be on the decline is that the demand for literacy in our society has increased.(020) To be successful students have to be more literate today than their parents had to be. While this is evident in the instance of computer literacy, it is even true if you want to pass standardized tests.

Roger Farr, Leo Fay, and Harold Negley tested a sample of students using a 1940 edition of an Iowa Test of Reading.(021) Students in 1976 greatly outscored their 1944-45 counterparts on the 1940 edition of the test. On the 1976 edition, they looked like they knew about what students knew in the 40's. Scores were not worse.

These data suggest that standardized tests have gotten harder. Items that traditionally were used to discriminate the literate from the illiterate no longer do so.

The 1965 Edition of the Metropolitan Readiness Test had 16 items that asked children to identify particular letters from an array of like letters. Scores on this subsection were used to identify children ready for reading instruction. By 1980, however, the mean score on this subsection was 14. A ceiling effect was operating and the subsection could no longer produce a spread of scores that was useful for discriminating readers from nonreaders. The decision that the test designers made on how to revise the test was not newsworthy, though it should have been. What they did was quietly drop the subsection from the test.(022) To be declared ready to read, children now have to be able to identify words instead of alphabetic letters. While there are a lot of theoretical problems with this new criterion, too, the point is that adults as well as children live in a virtual sea of print and these conditions cause new levels of learning and new expectations.

Tom Stitch, a senior researcher for the Armed Services, reported that only 6% of all applicants for the Armed Services were rejected on the grounds of illiteracy. 023 That means that 94% of all applicants passed. Given that the Armed Services still attract the lion's share of its employees from minority and lower socioeconomic groups in our society, the nation probably is in much better literacy shape than the doomsayers suggest.

Functional literacy is an elusive criterion. As a concept it is meant to capture the notion that one has enough literacy to function, to successfully complete any task encountered involving literacy. If this criterion were really applied, the results would be devastating. How many of us, for example, seek lawyers ot H & R Block to get our income tax returns prepared. I've signed admission forms in a hospital emergency ward that frighten me when I think what rights I may have given up. By a strict definition I'd join the ranks of the illiterate.

Sometimes things sound worse than they are in reality. 024 Consider the fact that many Americans are reported to have only attained a seventh grade level reading ability and then look at Figure 2 which contains a representative sample of some of the reading materials a group of seventh graders labeled learning disabled successfully read on their own.

Of course, the reports could sound even worse than they do. According to which report you read, functional literacy runs anywhere from 25 million to 70 million in the United States. 025 That's an error variance of 45 million. With these discrepancies someone, you would think, should question the measuring device.

I mention these things to demonstrate that what is often taken as a given -- literacy is on the decline -- is, in reality, not that clearcut. There is, in fact, some quite compelling counter-evidence. 026

Supporting Teachers and Teacher Judgment

Universal public education never will be easy nor will it be cheap. This doesn't mean that I nor you have to condone the current state of education or the state of literacy in the United States. We haven't done badly; we simply could do a whole lot better by applying what we currently know and by using this base upon which to grow. Because of the tenor of our times -- times that feed the assumptions implicit in the belief that teachers of reading are not very effective in their jobs -- the demands of comprehension and critical thinking are on us all. This includes students, to be sure, but also teachers, administrators, and school board members.

Figure 2. 7th Grade Independent Reading Materials (Special Education Classroom Sample)

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BILLIE JEAN KING

"Women should not play tennis," said Bobby Riggs. "Women should stay at home. Tennis is a man's game." That is what many people thought, years ago. They did not want to watch women play. Men were the exciting players. But that was before Billie Jean King. Billie Jean proved that women could be as exciting to watch as men. When she played everyone was amazed at how good she was. She won the big matches at Wimbledon and Forest Hills many times.

Then Bobby Riggs decided to challenge her. He could beat any woman, he said. And even though he was 55 years old, he could still beat Billie Jean King. Well, Billie Jean could not let him get away with that. She agreed to play him. And when the match was over, Bobby had to eat his words. Billie Jean won every game! Now Bobby knows. Tennis is a woman's game, too!

Olivia Newton-John

Olivia Newton-John, who was born in Australia, loved two things as a child—animals and music. She was always bringing home stray or injured dogs and cats. Her mother, however, was afraid of dogs, and since her family lived where no pets were allowed, Olivia never had any animals of her own.

* * *

When she was fourteen, music became her major interest. She formed a singing trio with two other girls. The very next year she won a talent contest. First prize was a trip to London. Without a second thought, Olivia quit school and flew to England to begin a serious career in music.

* * *

Now one of the most well-liked pop-country singers in the world, Olivia has recorded many albums. She has received three Grammy awards. After making the movie *Grease* with John Travolta, Olivia became a movie star as well as a recording artist. Both of these careers are a long way from being either a mounted police officer or a veterinarian, the two careers she chose as a child.

FRANKENSTEIN

Mary Shelley

Victor Frankenstein was born in Geneva, Switzerland. He was the oldest son of a wealthy Swiss family. Victor's childhood was happy. His parents were loving and kind to him and his two younger brothers, Ernest and William. Victor's classmate, Henry Clerval, was a loyal friend. Victor had a sweetheart, Elizabeth Lavenza. They looked forward to the day when they would marry.

When Victor was seventeen, he went to a German school to study science. He liked the subject. Soon he knew as much as his teachers. Victor began to study on his own. He wanted to discover the secret of life. When that goal was reached, he would create life itself!

After much study, Victor learned the secret of life. "Now that I know this secret," he thought, "I will use it to give life to the lifeless!" Victor began to collect materials for his work. At night he went to medical laboratories. He went to alleys behind butcher shops. He took bodies from graveyards. All that he found was brought back to his own laboratory. There, he set to work creating a man.

Frankenstein worked hard for many months. Finally his creature was ready. But it was not yet alive. Using electricity, Frankenstein brought his creation to life.

The creature's eyes opened and his arms and legs moved. Frankenstein was suddenly filled with horror. He had meant for his creature to be beautiful. But once it was alive, the scientist saw that it was ugly and horrible. The creature's eyes were pale, his skin was shriveled, and his lips were black.

Frankenstein fled the room in terror and disgust. He did not realize that the creature was really kind and gentle.

Saddened by the horror he had caused, the creature left the laboratory. He hid in the woods. He warmed himself at deserted fires. Berries and nuts were his food. But the creature wished to learn about humans, and to live among them.

The creature went to a nearby village. Everyone who saw him attacked him or ran away. The creature slowly learned that people were horrified by his looks. He was forced to go back to the woods. He tried to make friends with a blind man who lived there. But the blind man's children chased him away.

While living in the woods, the creature found a suitcase filled with fine books. He taught himself to read. He learned to speak. But it did not help. People were struck with horror as soon as they saw him.

The creature began to hate people. He especially began to hate his creator. He decided to find his way back to Geneva to get even. Along the way, he saw a girl fall into a rushing stream. He saved her life. But the girl's friend shot and wounded the creature. This made him even more bitter.

When he reached the fields of Geneva, he saw a boy. The creature hoped the child was too young to be afraid. He put his hand on the boy's arm and spoke to him

Rather than react from a position of defense, we need to respond from a position of strength. Educational policy should be designed using progress as its metaphor and be a supportive attempt to marshal and use teachers as a resource in the revitalization of education. This is best done by seeing opportunity rather than fault and by thinking collaboration rather than castigation.

What all this means for the teacher, the school board member, and the administrator is that this is no time for conservatism. Teachers should be supported in their efforts to keep informed and encouraged to test their best language hypotheses as to how to create a conducive environment for classroom reading instruction.

They might begin with intuition. 027 One of the things we found during our observations of classroom reading instruction is that whenever the teacher stepped out -- that is included things in the program beyond just the things recommended in the commercial program that was available, these innovations were always better, from a theoretical perspective, than were the things being advocated by the program being followed. For example, Mrs. B. used a very structured reading program called Chicago Mastery Learning step-by-step throughout the morning. 028 When interviewed she complained that she thought the program was too structured and that therefore she had to make some modifications just in order to get the program to work in her classroom. Because the program called for a great deal of one-on-one teaching, Mrs. B. began the day by introducing the children to what seatwork they were to have completed prior to their coming to reading group. While most of this work had to do with Chicago Mastery Learning, that is worksheets of one sort or another, Mrs. B. always invited the children to write their own story as an additional seatwork assignment. Typically she would use a story starter such as, "If I had a million dollars I would...," which the children were to compete. Since this activity was unlike any other activity I saw in the name of reading instruction in her classroom, I asked her why she included it. She responded:

> "Well, I just think it is important that children learn to express their own ideas and have fun in the process....At the end of the morning, we share what we have written....I don't correct the spelling on these papers....We work on spelling at other times....I know a lot of people think these kids can't write....But I tell them to do the best they can...and all that is important is that they can read it to be able to share it with the group....I don't know if I am right, but the kids do love it." (Mrs. B., Field Notes)

What I find interesting is that given what we currently know there is much right with this activity. Children are asked to use reading and writing functionally. The activity is open-ended, unlike the worksheets she is using, and thus allows children with differing levels of ability to enter and exit at different levels.

Children who are only capable of producing one sentence can do so; others who are capable of doing more are free to test their skills. Further, children are cognitively active. They must think critically. They have to use what they know about language to complete this task, and to orchestrate their knowledge of letter/sound relationships, spelling, the flow of language and meaning in the process. Recent research in reading, then, would clearly support this activity, whereas it would have more difficulty supporting the bifurcation of the process that was taking place in the name of reading instruction as packaged in the Chicago Mastery Learning materials.

In rereading the field notes it is clear that Mrs. B. feels vulnerable by including this activity in her program. Unfortunately, because she is not aware of the research base, this writing activity, which I believe to be the best part of her program, is likely to go with the next classroom demand. Intuitively she did not like the Mastery Learning materials and approach, but, because it is the adopted program, she is more confident in her decision to follow this program in her classroom.

Over and over again this pattern emerged in our field study of classroom reading instruction. Over and over again teacher intuition was right. Because of the recent attacks on teachers by the public, teachers, however, felt vulnerable and under these conditions were less likely to follow their intuitions. This is unfortunate. Administrators and school board members would do well to help teachers regain their professional confidence. Clearly, without the active participation and intuitions of our best reading educators, reading instruction will not improve as rapidly as it might or should. Teachers and researchers often have quite different concerns. To make the progress that we must in the development of an instructional theory of reading instruction, teacher involvement, insight, and intuition is crucial. Our classroom observations suggest that unless what we know is turned into creative classroom practice, little real progress has been made.

We Could Easily Solve the Problems in Teaching Reading Comprehension if We Applied What We Know from Research

This assumption underlies both this volume and this research project. Before one blindly uses research as a base for making instructional policy, however, it is important to ask, "What is the relationship between reading, the study of reading, and reading instruction?"

A recent report in reading gives the impression that to help someone become a reader all one must do is get that person to: (1) "master basic processes [like word recognition and phonics] to the point where they are automatic," and (2) "monitor one's own reading and notice when failure occurs. (029) While these are important subprocesses in reading, I will argue that, as guidelines for a comprehensive instructional policy, they are too narrow.

Reading is a complex process. So is the study of reading and reading instruction. If one thinks about the logical relationships which might exist between reading, the study of reading, and reading instruction, four possibilities exist. (030)

Four Possibilities

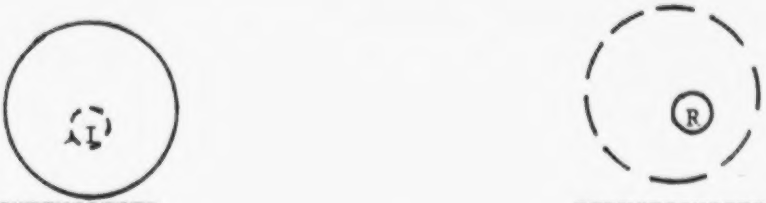
Same. The first possibility is that the three -- reading, the study of reading, and reading instruction -- are one and the same. This possibility is not very likely given the fact that reading in school often looks quite different from what real readers do outside of school. (031) Because most researchers still use psychology majors to study reading under laboratory condition -- as opposed to what real readers do under real reading conditions (032) -- the research community tends to know more about reading under these conditions than under more realistic ones. Hence, it is not surprising to find that many educators are calling for more field-based rather than laboratory-based research on reading. Others suggest that one of the fastest ways to clean up curriculum is to throw out all instructional practices not grounded in what real readers or writers do on the outside. (033) Given such observations it seems safe to conclude that whatever the relationship is between reading, reading instruction, and research in reading, the three are not the same.

This conclusion, however, is important and ought to be shared with students. In use, it helps teachers and researchers clarify for themselves and others what they are or ought to be about. Many problems arise when we assume that reading instruction is reading or infer that what children do when faced with nonsense words is what they do when faced with print situated in a meaningful context.

Different. A second, and not unlikely possibility, given what has been said, is that the three -- reading instruction, reading, and the study of reading -- are completely different. If reading instruction, reading, and the study of reading were each represented by a circle, diagramatically, this possibility would be represented by 3 non-overlapping circles (see Figure 3). In contrast to Possibility 1 where reading instruction, reading, and the study of reading are posited as the same -- hence the circles overlap with one on top of the other -- Possibility 2 suggests that the three do not touch, that each constitutes a separate world.

Figure 3. Four Possible Relationships Between Reading, Reading Instruction, and The Study of Reading.

SAME DIFFERENT



INTENSIFIED REDUCTIONISTIC

While there is some evidence for this possibility -- particularly given the intersect of research on reading and real reading -- even here the likelihood of no overlap is remote. Despite the ditto sheets that fill most classrooms, to the extent that children even occasionally are given the opportunity to go to the library to select things they really wish to read, or have opportunities to write on topics of their own choice in their classrooms, some overlap should exist. In some classrooms the overlap between reading and reading instruction is greater than in others.

The same can be said about research in reading and real reading. While readers are rarely given much choice in reading under research conditions, for some studies this is not true. In fact, the trend is towards more ethnographic or field-based research.034 For the most part classrooms studied in the best of ethnographic studies have been purposefully selected because of the 'natural' learning environments that already existed. The assumption is made by these researchers that we have more to learn by studying good classrooms than by studying classrooms which violate what we currently know.

Intensified. The third possibility relative to the relationship between reading, the study of reading, and reading instruction is that research intensifies certain processes but does not necessarily distort them. To envision this possibility one must conceive of the study of reading and reading instruction as a larger circle with a smaller circle representing the study of reading/reading instruction within it (see Figure 3). Possibility 3 is optimistic. It suggests that the relationship between reading and the study of reading/reading instruction is continuous, differing only in that the one studies or highlights key processes -- but not all processes -- within the other. It suggests that research and instruction differ from real reading only in that the first two intensify or exaggerate key cognitive operations in reading.

If this possibility is true it would mean, given our review of reading comprehension research over the past 10 years, that such strategies as inferencing, generalizing, monitoring, and summarizing are key operations in successful reading. Researchers, of course, would love to believe that this is the case. Yet, we must be careful. Applying what one knows about letter/sound relationships, about the flow of language, about one's knowledge of how language varies across the circumstances of use, while not the focus of research during the past 10 years, are nonetheless key strategies. These topics are not being researched as heavily today -- not because they are considered unimportant -- but rather, because their centrality in the process has been confirmed and their potential for expanding our horizons of knowledge about reading is thought by today's researchers as being more limited than exploring other aspects of the process.

One must keep in mind the goals that drive various groups. Researchers are interested in expanding knowledge, not in developing instructional policy. Instructional decision makers should write policies that do not violate what researchers know, but cannot, because of their interest and objectives, afford to be blinded by the socio-historical context and constraints in which one -- but only one -- important group of their informants are working.

Having said all this, Possibility 3 still strikes me as being a useful perspective to hold. It is clearly the case that researchers now know more about the process of reading than at any previous point in our history. New stances, because they have focused on strategies, process, and comprehension have advanced our understanding more than past perspectives. There is no doubt in my mind that reading instruction would be greatly improved if we were to apply what researchers have learned about key processes in reading comprehension over the past 10 years. This does not, however, mean that this is all we should teach. We need to reorder priorities by replacing old instructional practices with new ones. Children, nonetheless, will still need to go to the library, read widely, and be given daily opportunities to use reading as a tool for exploring and expanding their worlds.

Reductionistic. The fourth possibility is that the relationship between reading, reading instruction and reading research is one of reductionism. This is much like Possibility 3, with the noticeable difference that it is less optimistic.

Rather than intensifying key strategies, distortions occur which reduce a complex process to simplicity if not insipidness. Possibility 4 is, I believe, a real possibility. Often in our attempts to make the teaching of reading simple and the study of reading straightforward, a tidiness is imposed that is quite unnatural given how reading works in the real world.

Carolyn Burke (35) reminds us that we can make a complex process like reading look simple, but just doing this does not alter the complexity of the true process underlying it. Her reminder is useful for researchers and teachers as they go about translating recent research to practice.

Possibility 4 is what I think is the typical or standard relationship between research and practice. There is much evidence that this is what has occurred in recent policy reports on the status of reading and how it is we might become a nation of readers. Given that research topics come and go as demonstrated by the 'hot topics' on the annual programs at professional meetings, a bandwagon effect clearly operates in research as well as in education more generally. Researchers, teachers, and educators would be deluding themselves if they failed to take Possibility 4 seriously. Possibility 4 is also why, I think, the bifurcation between research and practice which currently exists is not necessarily healthy nor over the long run beneficial to the profession. I have in this regard made sundry calls for practical theory, for teachers and researchers to work collaboratively in the development of a practical theory of literacy instruction. Such a theory must be developed in collaboration in classrooms, with teachers and researchers each contributing their expertise and know-how. As long as the relationship between research and practice is seen as one way rather than as dynamic, teachers and researchers both lose. In reality good teaching is a form of research, and both teaching and research are forms of the learning process. The sooner educators see that they share a common purpose as well as a common goal, the faster the growth and revitalization of the profession. Collaborative learning is what both teaching and research is all about.

From Theory-to-Practice to Practical Theory

Policy-wise, a discussion of the relationship between reading, reading instruction and reading research is meant to highlight pitfalls and simplistic responses to complex issues. Policy makers must think in terms of a balanced reading program. A good theory of instruction ought not violate what we know about the reading process. Yet, because a theory of instruction has to encompass not only reading theory, but writing theory, learning theory, curriculum theory, child growth and development and more, it necessarily has to be broader 036

Many educational researchers do not seem to understand this. Instead of their doing educational research, my assessment, after reviewing the literature, is that the set of real instructional studies -- that is, studies that synthesize basic research across a variety of disciplines in an attempt to build and test a theory of instruction in classrooms -- is extremely small. They are also poorly done. This seems to be due to the fact that educational researchers adopt research methodologies from what they see as the basic sciences -- psychology, sociology, linguistics -- rather than attempt to build a basic methodology of their own which accents synthesis, reflects their goals, and acknowledges the action and change orientation of their discipline. 037 Good instructional research synthesizes and explicates the curricular premises upon which it is conducted, tracks the collaborative learning that participants engage in as a function of the curriculum, and documents its value by demonstrating reflexivity in terms of original premises and curricular growth on the part of all participants. This is but a start. The agenda ahead for educators of all kinds is to develop a research methodology for their discipline. They must begin by not being afraid to acknowledge who they are and by conducting and reporting real educational inquiries in real instructional settings. 038

In our field work we repeatedly encountered school districts which either had severed relationships with local colleges or universities, or never really developed any substantive relationships in the first place. In part this pattern exists because school people have bought into the notion that research is something colleges do; teaching something schools do. College professors of education are involved in knowledge production; teachers in knowledge utilization. The unfortunate effect of positions of this sort is that both groups of educators cut themselves off from their ready sources of new knowledge. Instructional theory isn't something one applies to practice; it is the result of an attempt both to explain and to improve practice.

One way to change this pattern is for every school district in the country to identify a series of demonstration center classrooms within its borders and encourage its teachers to align themselves with a reading educator at an institution of higher education who has similar persuasions. Parents and faculty should be informed that these classrooms will be instructional development and demonstration centers.

Faculty who do not wish to be involved in these programs should be given this option. Parents who do not wish to have their children involved in these centers should be permitted to make this choice. Graduate students and faculty within institutions of higher education who believe as I believe would make a commitment to spend 2 or 3 mornings a week in these classrooms working on goals that have been collaboratively agreed upon by the teacher and the faculty member involved. The Albuquerque Public School System and the Denver Public School System already use this model. 039 They have negotiated with the institutions in their area and have purchased part of the time of selected reading specialists at these institutions. However, just as not all public school teachers should be selected for involvement in these projects, so, too, not all college reading experts are right for involvement in these projects.

Some of the goals public school teachers and college reading experts have begun to explore successfully are: (1) setting up a theoretically-based reading, writing, and thinking curriculum; 040 (2) integrating reading and writing in the language arts program of special education students; 041 (3) rethinking beginning reading and writing given new understandings of how reading and writing evolve; 042 (4) developing a literature-based reading and writing program; 043 and (5) exploring how reading lessons might be improved to encourage and support critical thinking. 044

Unlike the old model of educational research -- where the researcher gets a whole lot smarter, but the classroom stays the same -- in these projects everyone grows. Often researcher and teacher exchange roles. Each contributes what it is they know. Curriculum is collaboratively constructed by the researcher, the teacher, and the children involved.

New policy guidelines must actively support the process of educators helping themselves. Policy makers must be as interested in their own curriculum and that of their teachers as they are in the curriculum of the children in the district they serve. To do otherwise is shortsighted and relegates teachers to a spectator rather than a participant role in education.

Reading and Writing are Skills which are Best Learned Early, Brought to Automaticity, and Practiced Frequently

This is the premise underlying most of the district level skill checklists and published reading series we see in use in classrooms. These checklists and reading series present phonics and vocabulary development as keys to growth and development in reading. Worksheets and flash card work on vocabulary are often posed as the beginning and key skills in reading comprehension. In some schemes vocabulary drill and the recall of facts are the only things actually addressed in the name of reading comprehension (see Figure 4). While the teacher, in this instance, has written in additional objectives for reading, this approach is clearly inadequate.

Most researchers in the field of reading no longer hold the

Figure 4. District Level Skill Checklist

SHORT TERM OBJECTIVES

for: ______________________ year: __________

teacher: ______________________

Below is a list of objectives in five categories. Columns are provided for keeping record of student progress. Use a slash across the square for those objectives selected and another slash (making an X) for those objectives achieved. Note: some of the objectives are taken from the Brigance manual. These are recorded in detail in the Brigance Student Record Book.

A. SPELLING

○ ○ I-1 ● Spelling Grade Placement ... 177
○ ○ I-7 ● Spells Number Words 188
○ ○ I-8 ● Spells Days of the Week 189
○ ○ I-9 ● Spells Months of the Year ... 190
○ ○ Spells ________ out of the 100 most frequently-used word.

B. WRITING

○ ○ J-6 ● Capitalization 201
○ ○ J-7 ● Punctuation.................. 203
○ ○ T-4 ○● Equivalent Calendar Units ... 300
○ ○ T-7 ● Writes Dates 304
○ ○ Writes creative paragraph.
○ ○ Fills out forms correctly.
○ ○ Writes creative story.
○ ○ Writes letter and addresses envelope correctly.

C. READING

○ ○ E-1 ○● Reading Vocabulary Comprehension Grade Placement
Form A 79
Form B 80
○ ○ Locates word for meaning in Dictionary.
○ ○ Locates information in newspaper.
○ ○ Locates phone numbers in directory.
○ ○ Will read ________ novels.

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model of reading implicit in the position expressed in this statement.(045) The fact that there is a gap between theory and practice is not surprising. Typically instructional materials and practices lag behind the knowledge base in a profession.(046) What is surprising is just how far behind our knowledge base are current reading materials and practices.

To fully understand the gap that exists, some explanation of where research is in relationship to practice is needed. One way to lay out these differences is to explain a subskills model of reading and to examine various positions and practices related to this approach such as basals, phonics and beginning reading, direct instruction, and time-on-task.

A Subskill Model of Reading

A subskill model of reading instruction is the dominant approach found in public schools. My estimation, given our sampling techniques, is that versions of this model are to be found in 85 percent of all classrooms in the United States.(047)

Conceptually this model sees reading as a collection of skills and subskills.(048) If kindergarten teachers work with children on the letters of the alphabet, then first grade teachers can work on letter/sound patterns, second grade teachers on regular and irregular word endings (ed, er, etc.), and so on throughout the grades. While there are phonic and look/say variations of this approach,(049) the end result of adding skill upon skill is supposedly the same; namely, the assembly and production of a totally proficient reader.

Logically, this approach led to much work on sequencing the skills of reading. Implicit in the model is the belief that one initially 'learns to read' and then later 'reads to learn.' It was believed that if the right skills were carefully taught in the right order, the problems of literacy would be solved. Many good people spent their professional lives developing skill development checklists. Today developmental sequences vary by what basal reading series one looks at and by what author one is reading. To make matters worse, recent research has failed to support a single developmental sequence in learning to read. Given current understandings, there is no particular order in which one must learn particular skills in order to learn how to read.(050) Clearly, we now know, comprehension precedes rather than follows what the developers of these approaches listed as subskills of comprehension.(051)

In order to understand the pervasiveness and the appeal of a subskills model of reading, however, an understanding of history is needed.(052) In some ways a subskills model evolved quite naturally given its philosophical posit that direct confrontation and hard work pay off for both teachers and students. On the surface it is a no nonsense approach to teaching reading. Because these attitudes still have appeal and acceptance in our society, many remnants of this model will continue to exist and in fact have to be built into newer approaches and models of reading if they are to receive acceptance in our society.

At the time of their development, basal reading programs had much appeal. Good libraries were rare. Basal programs not only provided multiple sets of classroom materials, but they were thought to be a way of solving problems in teacher preparation. Teachers did not have to know a lot about reading, language or children. All they had to do was follow along. Quality control was assured.

An added benefit, given the tenor of the times, was that this approach to reading made teaching appear scientific. This was important. Science was the great cure-all. Science had solved lots of problems. Logically, specialists could identify the subskills of reading, write explicit directions for how one was to teach each subskill (the teachers manual in basals has the exact questions they are to ask as well as the order in which they are to ask them), and test for mastery prior to moving on to the next skill.

School boards felt good, too. They could absolve themselves of reading failures by spending lots of money on workbooks and basal reading programs. Anyone looking at their decisions could see that they had given priority to reading by the dollar figures allocated. A look at the budget would prove that school board members had done everything in their power to improve the status of literacy in their school district.

There are many reasons why a subskill model of reading has lost its appeal to the research community. While blunt, given our review, it seems safe to say that most researchers have found a subskills model of reading to come up short if not to be theoretically bankrupt.(053) It isn't that they don't see proficient reading as 'skilled,' but rather that to 'be skilled' a reader has to be 'strategic' applying various skills flexibility and fluently given various conditions and purposes. Most researchers see a subskill model as having little power or ability to explain what real readers do under real reading conditions.(054)

All sorts of anomalies abound. Some readers do well on the comprehension subsection of tests and yet fail one or more skill subsections.(055) Many school districts, we found, remediate children on these skills despite the fact that the child reads and that these skills are supposedly prerequisite to reading. Such practices are not even condoned by developers of subskills instructional materials.

No one, researchers have found, can read as perfectly as the model assumes. No one, no matter how carefully they read a passage of any length, can recall all of what is read. Psychologists have found that good readers form generalizations, summarize, and reduce information as they read.(056) Reading is not recall. To recall is not necessarily to have comprehended. The recall of details is not prerequisite to the recall of main ideas.

Then, too, researchers have found there is no single thing called literacy. Literacy isn't something you acquire, like a comb carried in the back pocket, to be used when needed. Rather, to be seen as literate in this society depends upon using reading and writing to serve a variety of ends.(057) Reading a novel is different from reading a set of directions on how to put together a jungle gym. Different reading strategies are involved. Writing a shopping list for a husband is different than writing a shopping list for oneself. My wife, in fact, even knows what things I am likely to get confused ('salad dressing' and 'mayonnaise') because of packaging and takes particular pains to accent the one and write 'not salad dressing' in parentheses.

Researchers now tell us that literacy is a resource, an ever-expanding tool for learning.(058) Many people in our society, they tell us, can read, but are hardly literate in the sense that they actively use reading and writing as tools for learning, for outgrowing their current selves.

Many so-called literates in our society rarely read books.(059) The United States produces fewer writers per 1,000 persons than do supposedly less civilized nations.(060) Many of our best readers still do not like reading poetry. Somehow they have failed to learn how to read poetry. Rather than using the words as metaphors to stimulate their own thinking, to run with their imagination, to create illusions, they approach everything they read as if it were a science report.

These trends bother reading researchers and theorists in that they suggest that many readers have the ability to read but do not actively use reading as a tool for learning. Researchers now want to talk about reading strategies as opposed to skills. To be a successful reader, readers need to choose to use different strategies in different settings.(061)

The difference between a skill and a strategy sounds minor, but has important instructional implications.(062) Sounding out words is one of several things a reader can do when encountering an unknown word in print. Rather than teach sounding out words as a skill, as something every reader must do (in fact the only thing a good reader would do), it should be presented as an option, one of several strategies good readers might use. Recent research has shown that sounding out words, in fact, is one of the least powerful strategies that good readers use.(063) This means, then, that one way to improve the teaching of reading is to teach it differently. What used to be called skills should be called strategies and presented, not as mandates, but as options. This single, rather small change could do much to improve the teaching of reading. An important and rather large effect would be that the reader, rather than the teacher, is put in charge of actively deciding which strategies to employ in which situation.

Parents often say that they learned how to read following a skills approach to reading. What was good enough for them is good enough for their children. This attitude is unfortunate. Given what we currently know, we have no business turning out another generation with such limited views of what reading and writing is or can be. Before parents advocate that their children receive the restricted curriculum they received, they had better ask themselves how many novels they have read in the last year, or even more telling, how many stories or articles they have written or are in the process of writing. While we made some progress under a skills model of reading in reaching our goal of universal literacy, we now have within our power to go far beyond. School policy ought to take pride in our past achievements, but support future growth.

Sometimes the argument is posed: "What evidence is there that other approaches are more effective than a skills model of reading?" Given the counter-evidence -- the number of nonreaders, the number of 'literate illiterates,'[064] and the number of writers we do not produce -- this argument is spurious. The point is that, given what we currently know, we can do better. Clearly educators have a right and a responsibility to try. Given the current status of literacy in our society, the tables are turned. "What real evidence is there that a skills model has or is working?"

Basals

During the early period of this model's reign, basal reading series were developed. These series are very much with us today.[065]

> The observation that basal programs 'drive' reading instruction is not to be taken lightly. These programs strongly influence how reading is taught in American schools and what students read....Basal reading programs are complete packages of teaching materials. They provide an entire reading curriculum (summarized in what is called a 'scope and sequence chart'), instructional strategies for teaching reading (through teachers' manuals), a graded anthology of selections for children to read (through student readers), and practice exercises (through workbooks and skill sheets). In addition, there are numerous optional and supplemental materials (e.g., management and testing systems, visual aids such as word cards, sentence cards and picture cards; audio tapes, film strips; supplementary books). Basal reading programs are organized by grade level with most programs

> beginning at kindergarten and continuing through the eighth grade. An entire basal reading program would make a stack of books and papers four feet high. 065a

Essentially basal reading programs are a series of graded or sequenced readers and workbooks written such that each skill is systematically introduced, practiced, and overlearned. The technical term for overlearning is automaticity, meaning that things are practiced and practiced until a response is made automatically, without conscious awareness or thought. 066 This is why flash cards are a sure sign of a skills model of reading in operation. The notion is that if children see the word often enough, their response will become unconscious or automatic.

This is also why skill programs usually put comprehension on the back burner. They believe that such 'basics' as phonics and building a sight word vocabulary need to precede attention to meaning. 067 Because each of these subskills need not only be learned, but overlearned, comprehension can be delayed indefinitely if subskill mastery is not demonstrated. In one school district we visited, the developers of Chicago Mastery Learning materials had given an inservice training session to the teachers on how to use the materials. One teacher told us that she had asked the developers what she was to do if a student did not show mastery of a particular skill. The worksheet leader had told her that if, after repeating the materials, the child still did not show mastery, she should just go on to the next skill as the old skill would be reviewed and practiced as part of the new unit too. Despite the fact that the developers made this recommendation, the teacher was bothered, thinking it was wrong not to make sure each subskill was completely mastered. Instead of moving on, what this teacher did was find another set of materials that taught the same skill and retaught the unit. If this didn't take, she would go to a fourth set of materials and so on (Mrs. L., Field Notes).

What I found interesting about this incident is that while the developers were not sure about the importance of their subskill hierarchy and therefore were willing to give the child the opportunity to move ahead, the teacher took the subskill list more seriously and was unwilling to go on.

For the most part, stories in basals are written based on the vocabulary to be introduced at a particular grade level. Sometimes vocabulary in basals is selected on the basis of frequency of occurrence in English language use (a look/say approach). At other times it is selected on the basis of the regularity of letter/sound relationships (a phonics approach). The approach used is dependent upon whether the developers have a phonic or sight word orientation to beginning reading.

Based on research studying people's memory for words reading specialists who initially worked on and developed basals came to believe that children with average IQs should have between 40 and 50 exposures to each new word to bring it to the level of automaticity or over-learning(068) Basal stories written with this criterion in mind have certain characteristic. They tend to be long on vocabulary repetition and short on content or quality. They represent the kinds of materials most of us read when we were in school. Stories such as "Sally's Shoes" should sound familiar:

> "Sally has new shoes. They are her school shoes. Sally's school shoes are black. Look, Dick, look! See Sally's new black school shoes....." (Field Notes, Sample Materials)

Richard Anderson, director of the Center for the Study of Reading at Illinois, has critiqued basal reading materials of this sort charging that they do little to foster reading comprehension and thinking. "What is there to think about after reading a story of this sort?" he questions. "That children score poorly on comprehension tests should not surprise us given the story materials currently in use in basal readers."(069)

Because of the changes that have occurred in the profession's understanding of reading, basal reading programs have recently changed. Most basals today contain quality children's literature selections. The best basal series do not modify these story to make them more readable, but use the selections as they were originally written.

Because of the number of skill activities that accompany each story, however, children often do not get to read as much as they should(070) In some classrooms we visited children spent less than 3 minutes actually reading. A single story, often just 3 or 4 pages, took over a week to read. In other classrooms, only one day was devoted to story reading, the remainder of the week devoted to 'skill work.' And interestingly, the only reason children read this story was because the teacher decided that 4 days of following the adopted skill series for the district was enough -- on Fridays she turned to other materials. At this rate children in some classrooms only read 9 stories each grading period. By contrast researches who have studied early readers have found 3 and 4 year olds want 4 to 5 stories read to them in a single setting(071)

Actual reading time in classrooms where it is assumed that the children are 'beginning readers' is often less than this. These children spend all of their instructional time building a sight vocabulary, doing worksheets on particular letters and sounds, learning how to identify short and long vowels, and reading simple paragraphs and stories (called 'textoids' by one researcher(072)) made up of the words introduced in the series. These stories are often not much. It is extremely difficulty to write an exciting story when one believes one is limited to 20 or even 100 particular words. If children are unsuccessful in these 'readiness' materials, more worksheets are given and work on a skill is intensified. This process can and does go on and on. In one high school special education classroom we visited, high school seniors were still working on short vowel sounds (Mrs. N., Field Notes).

The problem all basals face is packaging. Basal readers look like materials designed to teach reading rather than like a library book or a content area book written to acquaint readers with a topic of interest. (073) Basal readers are in a sense 'content-free,' and have been criticized on this point. (074) Children who have experienced basals bring with them expectation not only for the kind of things they will find in basals but also for the kind of activities they will be asked to do once they finish reading the selection. (075) Rather than really read, children 'game,' that is, they read with an eye toward what skills the teacher is going to teach. (076) The children we observed in classrooms rigidly adhering to the basals rarely got caught up in reading. Mentally the trip they took was quite different from that readers take when reading trade books or stories they find really interesting.

Reading is big business and getting bigger every year. Millions of dollars are spent developing basals to make sure that various interest groups and state adoption committees will find then acceptable. Many more millions are earned by getting on key state adoption lists as this means that a copy of the book will be purchased for every child in the state and that a copy of the accompanying workbook will be purchased year after year. Materials of all sorts sell. This includes basal reading series as well as 'skill supplemental packets.' There are, in fact, a growing number of publishers who just produce these skill supplemental packets. One could interpret this trend as indicating that reading failure from a subskills approach is so large that it supports 14 major publishing houses as well as at least 100 smaller satellite companies. One supplemental skill pack is advertised as, "The last book of vocabulary word lists you will ever need!"

Publishers publish what will sell regardless of whether or not it reflects what we know or what we ought to be doing for and with children. Few parents understand that basal reading series senior authors rarely are the most respected scholars in the field. Few parents understand that economists and professional editors, who know frightfully little about reading, often determine the content of the basals and these supplemental skill packs. From what we can tell, the bulk of the school instructional supply dollar still goes to buying basals and workbooks. Parents should know that 500 blank sheets of paper cost a lot less and, given what we know about reading and writing, offer a better instructional tool for teaching reading.

Calls for accountability accentuate basal reader purchasing and a subskill instructional model of reading because they appear to provide easy responses to complex issues.

Checklists as Curriculum

The perception that reading was a learned skill that if once properly and carefully mastered could be carried around forever has several further effects on the reading landscapes, such as checklists, testing, labeling, special programs and teacher distrust. Readers in trouble needed to be diagnosed, labeled, and treated accordingly. Special learners needed special programs and special teachers. Remedial reading teachers and special education teachers and programs are the result of this legacy.

If a reader was diagnosed and found to be in trouble, the problem was that he or she had not learned the skills that they should have. Since teaching which skills in what order is a tricky problem and, given the test results, whatever had been done had failed, teacher judgment was not to be trusted. Rather than rely on judgments based on performance in classroom activities, teachers were asked to follow the basal skill by skill. Even under this regime, if and when children experience difficulty, rarely are basals or the checklists blamed, rather it is the teacher's fault for not insuring mastery of each skill before moving on to the next skill. From what we can tell, the result of such policies is that teachers rarely trust their own professional judgments, though we have some evidence that on the whole their judgments tend to be better than those given by the tests.

The overall result was that school policies of this sort stripped both the child and the teacher of power. Materials, checklists, and basal reading programs became the curriculum. The child was forgotten.

Arthur Combs, tongue in cheek, captures this attitude in education succinctly: "We have the best building, the best materials, the best curriculum guides that money can buy, and then those parents send us the wrong kids!"[077]

Even today district-wide skill checklists are often developed to ensure that all children receive the same instruction. Sometimes these checklists are adopted under the guise of making transfer from one school to the other less disruptive. Teachers in these systems are seen as technicians or replaceable cogs. Such school policies cause school reading programs to be over-organized to the point that management by objectives takes precedent over learning. As one wag said, "Curriculum gets covered, rather than uncovered."[078]

Instructional materials, inservice programs, and central office administrivia are written so that the weakest readers and weakest teachers can appear organized and achieve a pseudo, if not real, success (079). Teaching materials are written to be 'teacher proof.' Inservice programs designed to train teachers on how to complete the necessary paper work for programs of this sort have the effect, by keeping everyone so busy, of making the basic program become the standard program.

Phonics and Beginning Reading

> The issue is no longer, as it was several decades ago, whether children should be taught phonics. The issues now are specific ones of just how it should be done (080).

First, it should be said, that there are real problems in making statements that imply that the direct teaching of phonics is key to early success in reading. The biggest problem is the research. For the most part researchers interested in phonics study no other system of language. They isolate the graphophonemic (letter/sound) system of language and study it outside of any meaningful language context. Further, rather than study how the graphophonemic system of language works within real language use, they tend to study some aspect of this system, like short vowel patterns, and then teach and test the very skill that was studied often under the exact same conditions as it was taught (081). While this appears tidy from a research design perspective, the fact that children learn to do what was taught is not in itself surprising.

When one really looks at reviews of research on phonics, a very curious phenomenon is found. Only studies that study phonics in isolation are reviewed (082). Studies that looked at and studied phonics as part of the process of reading are not reviewed. Obviously, to make their task manageable, reviewers cite only those studies where the word 'phonics' appears in the title of the research report.

The other set of unreviewed studies is large and raises the issue of whether or not we should be spending instructional time teaching phonics in isolation. Several of these studies report that a little phonic information, when used in conjunction with strategies available from other systems of language, goes a long way.

An example should clarify the issue. Instead of reading, "'They're pretty,' said Nick, 'but that's not much of a garden...I grow peas, beans, and corn,'" one reader read, "'They pretty,' said Nick, 'but that not much of a garden...I grow plants, beans, and corn.'"

In this case the reader has read something different from what was expected. But if you examine what was done, you'll see that the reader juggled a lot of information. It's not the case that he didn't use phonics. There is a lot of letter/sound correspondence between the expected and the observed response. If one took this sentence and left a blank in place of 'peas' one would find that the substituted word fits the grammar of the sentence. What this tells us is that the reader's reading of this sentence wasn't random. The reader was actively using his knowledge of the flow of language to predict what he would find. Further, the miscue makes sense. It doesn't take a horticulturist to see that these options are a variegated species. The reader expected sense and made sense. The reader did what research has shown successful readers do. He expected print to make sense, he applied what he knew about language, he sampled the print, and made a response. In short, he tried to orchestrate, juggle, and balance various information sources in reading. To have only used phonic clues would be inefficient.

Children -- even special education children -- who score poorly on phonics tests repeatedly have been found to be able to read and write their own stories. (083) The stories they write and read have been found to be phonetically more complex than the worksheets they seemingly cannot do. Children whose test scores suggested they were weak in phonics made better progress learning to read when phonics was not directly taught than when it had been the focus of their instruction. (084)

Such studies are obviously problematic for the profession given the phonics controversy that continues to exist. I can't believe the issues involved are that complex to understand. It simply is not the case that everyone agrees that beginning reading instruction should focus on phonics and that no further inquiry is needed in this area. It simply is not the case that there are only two ways of instructionally addressing phonics. (085)

The phonics issue is perpetuated by the fact that researchers studying higher level processes in reading feel obligated to address phonics and how it is that phonics fits into what they are saying. Phonic researchers feel no such obligation. I firmly believe they ought to. They, it seems to me, ought to feel obligated to explain these other findings in light of their own and the position they take. While some of us may not choose to study phonics in isolation, we have, after all, offered explanations for why their data may be true but their interpretation faulty.

One of the key phonics researchers in this country, for example, believes that the criterion for determining whether or not a child is a reader is the child's ability to read nonsense words. (086) The problem with this criterion is that reading is harder under the testing conditions than it is in reality. Under such conditions the reader has no choice other than to use phonics. Under normal conditions other cueing systems are available. Print, for example, always makes sense in terms of its context. One does not find McDonalds on a shoe store, nor Shoe Repair on a marquee designed to advertise McDonalds. (087)

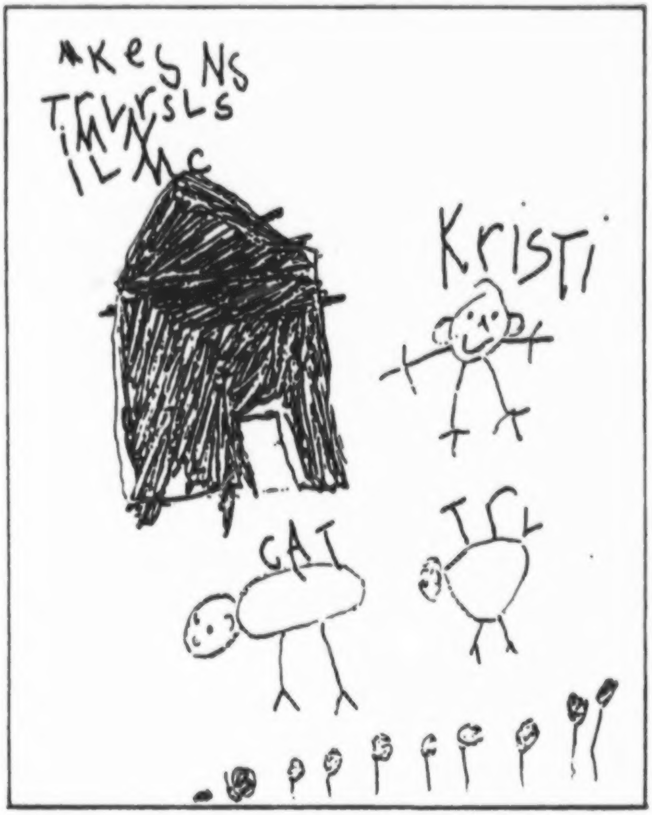
The real issue is not whether or not phonics is important. No current model of reading nor approach to the teaching of reading fails to stress phonics. While some methods might approach it more indirectly and less abstractly, no approach currently being advocated to teach reading fails to recognize the graphophonemic system of language and its role in the reading process. (088) What researchers and theoreticians object to is the role given phonics by lay persons unfamiliar with the complexity of the reading process. (089) Researchers rightfully argue that it is but one system of language, and that to understand even this single system, it has to be studied as it functions in language and as it gets used in conjunction with the other cueing systems of language.

A language example should help clarify this point. If I gave you some chunks of language (Railroad Strike Averted; Once Upon A Time; From Here It's A Short Walk; Raise Your Hands Please), in each instance you could tell me whether or not it was (1) oral or written, (2) for whom and by whom it was written, as well as (3) where you would be likely to find it. (090) You can do this because language varies by the circumstances of use. Embedded in our knowledge of language is where that language is likely to be found and what purpose it is likely to serve. Even the spelling system of language varies by circumstances of use. THRU, spelled in this form, would be found on a marquee in a fast food restaurant such as in 'Drive Thru' and would be considered conventionally spelled in this setting. THROUGH, spelled in this form, would be found in a formally written document of some sort and if spelled THRU would be considered to be spelled improperly given the setting. (091)

Children, by the time they come to school, know how to make their stories sound and look like stories, letters to their grandmother sound and look like personal letters, their notes sound and look like notes. (092) To pose phonics as the only or key code to be broken in order for reading to begin is to ignore other important codes that must be mastered without which no one could read. (093)

Kristi, age 5, is a case in point (see Figure 5). (094) Her story is about her pets and herself: "My cat is nice. Turtles are slow. I am nice. I like my cat." Her story is complete with illustration of her house, her cat, her turtle, and herself. It was interesting to me to note that she decided to label her pets after I asked if I could have her picture to share. You will note that in this instance she spells cat, C-A-T, unlike her earlier decision to spell it K-E. This

Figure 5. Kristi, Age 5 (Uninterrupted Writing)



Context of Situation

Field: Home; Uninterrupted Story Writing; Prompted.
Mode: Oral request; Drew pictures; Wrote text; Oral reading.
Tenor: Child writing story for mother.

Transcription (as read by child)

(Oral Aside) "This is a story about me and my pets."

MKESNS	My cat is nice
TRLSLS	Turtles are slow.
IMN	I am nice.
ILMC	I like my cat.

indicates that in writing writers must keep their mind on text, or the story they wish to write. Once they have their story down, they can begin to think about other things that they know about language -- in this case how to spell cat -- and revise. This basic process has been found to be the same process in which proficient readers and writers engage.

Similar observations have been made of preschoolers coming from homes less fortunate than that of Kristi(095) These researchers have found that, even when the parents of the population studied have been labeled illiterate, the children know much about written language. All expect it to make personal sense, all are exploring aspects of the graphic/sound system, some have even learned to make their line of print long if the message they have been asked to write sounds long, and short if the message sounds short(096)

It is not the case, then, that Kristi and other preschoolers do not know anything about phonics. School programs must build from this base rather than assume that children must begin with 'Letter A Day' and work their way through Letter 'Z.' By writing, Kristi is actively using what letter/sound information she has. Children who come to school with fewer opportunities to interact with books will of course know less than Kristi does about stories. What they need are opportunities to compose oral and written texts in light of what experiences they have had. Good teachers of beginning reading build reading skill by providing opportunities to compose stories in oral language and play as well as by providing quality encounters with paper, pens, and books each day. The instructional motto they follow is to litter the environment with language and print(097)

During direct instruction in phonics our observation is that children often wait passively for the teacher to announce what rule or phonic information they are to use. Worksheet activities get the child to apply this new rule to particular cases through repetition and practice. Children, under these conditions, rapidly learn the rule and apply it unthinkingly. That is why in instructional programs building from what we currently know about the evolution of literacy, children are asked to write doing the best that they can do. As Kristi demonstrates, such activities call for children actively to use all of the language information, including their growing understanding of phonics, in order to successfully complete the task. If the reading program is seen in terms of the mental trip that the language learner is asked to take, these educators would argue that the quality of the mental trip that Kristi is taking during this activity far exceeds that taken during completing a phonics worksheet.

Again the issue here is not phonics. Phonics is clearly a key system of language. It is, however, just that -- one system. In use, children must orchestrate their knowledge of phonics with their knowledge of how written language works in a particular setting. Direct teaching and direct learning are not one and the same.

Direct Instruction

Within any language event there are a number of things to which a language user can attend. These various things have been called demonstrations by some theorists.(098) In this article, for example, there is a demonstration of the kinds of issues that I, at least, think need to be considered in creating public policy relative to the teaching of reading. In addition, however, there are demonstrations as to the ways I talk about issues in reading, the language I use to refer to various concepts, the organizational structure that I use, and more. Readers coming to this selection bring with them a variety of different backgrounds. Parents may not have much knowledge of the terminology reading educators use. Some may attend to this demonstration more than others. Teachers may be familiar with the terminology but want new arguments for why they might trust their judgment relative to methods they are using. Others may come wanting to seek other things that they might do to improve their existing reading programs. Depending on their background of experience, interest, or purpose, then, readers will and can attend to whatever set of demonstrations they find interesting. Other readers with other backgrounds will attend to still other demonstrations. Reading is, in this sense, a transaction. The outcome of reading is not predetermined in the language itself, but rather is a result of a coming together of reader and text.(099) No two readers will attend to exactly the same demonstrations. This being the case, my creating a competency test which measured what I think are the key concepts to be acquired would only show that I didn't understand the reading process very well. We all came to this selection different. We all will go away from it different. What I say to you can mean more to you than it did to me. Reading is a generative process. The twin processes of meaning maintenance and meaning generation are what make reading such a powerful tool for learning.(0100)

The notion of demonstrations, while powerful in its own right for understanding language, is also quite useful for understanding what is wrong with the notion of direct instruction. Direct instruction assumes a one-to-one correspondence between what is taught and what is learned. Advocates of direct instruction assume that if they teach short vowel sounds, children learn short vowel sounds. The problem is, of course, that children can and do learn to hate reading by the very way we teach reading. Some learn that reading is 'hard' and 'full of little tricks.'(0101) These children have learned lessons we never intended to teach. Because of the number of demonstrations available in a language setting (such as teaching), no direct correspondence can be assumed between teaching and learning. This is why in fact the teacher must use the child as his or her curricular informant. It is only by watching the child and the mental trip taken that we can be sure that our planned curriculum was the actualized curriculum. If the child does not think about those things we associate with successful language use, then the teacher must rethink the language activity and make adjustments in it so as to get the child to take the mental journey envisioned in the first place. This process is called curriculum development. It is also why curriculum and curriculum development must be in the hands of the teacher. 0102

Do not interpret these statements to mean that teachers and school districts should not engage in the development of curriculum guides in the area of reading. As professionals we have both the right and the responsibility to plan. But as pragmatists we must realize that our plans are just that -- plans. What they give is perspective and direction. To be effective these plans must be collaboratively developed, tried, and fitted for size by teachers and students.

This is also why a good language arts curriculum is more than a set of activities that work. Journal writing, for example, generally allows children to use their background of experience as a basis for writing, apply their growing knowledge of letter/sound relationships, and test their own hypotheses in a relative low-risk writing setting. Yet, for some children journal writing may not have this effect. If and when this occurs, it should be changed and another instructional activity tried. Activities are not sacrosanct. They can come and go. Most important is the curriculum as it is experienced in the heads of language learners.

Good teachers know all these things. That is why school policy which dictates particular approaches to reading is not wise. Support takes many forms. Sometimes it is effective to sit down and talk with the child. At other times it is supportive simply to say, "That's your problem....Get on with it."

A further assumption inherent in direct teaching is that we already know all there is to know about literacy and the teaching of reading and writing. When used as a prescriptive instructional approach, the illusion is given that the teacher rather than the learner is in charge of learning. 0103 In reality, teaching and learning is a relationship. While it is not impossible to know what may be the next most helpful thing for a student to learn in, about and through reading, all those except the clairvoyant have to anticipate being wrong. This being the case, the most effective approach is to set up quality language experiences in the classroom, see to which demonstrations the child attends, and on this basis plan yet another quality learning encounter which highlights reading.

This process works extremely well when reading instruction involves reading to learn. Under worksheet conditions the task is closed and children have no options as to where to begin, where to end, or how to proceed. This is why open-ended activities of personal interest to each child is best. Under these conditions children can get in and out at their own level of development as well as address what demonstrations they currently find challenging and of interest to them.

Because children either refuse to attend to demonstrations they do not find interesting or do so begrudgingly,(0104) direct instruction is for the most part boring instruction both to be involved in and to watch. If you don't believe this go and observe 30 hours in a direct teaching classroom or read our field notes. Children, from our observations, had as much trouble attending as we did. As several of our field reports show, teachers have trouble attending, too.(0105)

Although research suggests that many of the principles underlying direct instruction are sound, the real problem in the way direct instruction gets defined as a teaching technique is that it assumes only the teacher can teach. To become a more effective teaching principle the issue of control needs to become of less concern. In comprehension-centered classrooms children learn much about comprehension from each other as they involve themselves in a wide variety of reading and writing activities. The focus is upon direct learning as well as an expanded definition of direct teaching:

> Direct instruction in comprehension means explaining [and demonstrating] the steps in a thought process that gives birth to comprehension. It may mean that a teacher [or child acting as teacher] models a strategy [by actually using the strategy or] by thinking aloud about how he or she is going about understanding a passage. The instruction [or setting] includes information on why [-- for what purpose and to what end --] and when [-- under what circumstances --] to use the strategy. Instruction of this type is the surest means of developing the strategic processing that was identified earlier as characteristic of skilled readers.(0105a)

After watching hundreds of hours of instruction, one criterion that I would suggest that teachers use in selecting reading activities for inclusion in their programs of direct instruction is interest. Interest is easy to operationalize: If the reading activity isn't one you would voluntarily elect to do on Saturday, don't force or even make it an option for the kids to do on Monday.(0106) In other words if it doesn't interest you, it won't interest children. This may lead to error, but given what we currently understand about the learning process, error in the right direction.

Time-on-task

Educators have responded to the recent criticisms of teachers and schools by emphasizing structured, no-nonsense approaches to teaching and learning. Programs of this sort are paraded under a variety of titles such as 'time-on-task,' and 'assertive discipline.' Often combinations of these programs are run as inservice programs throughout the school year by the district office.

Since these programs are not exclusively focused on reading and writing, I, like many reading educators, had not taken particular notice of them before. My attitude was that I had enough problems with Chicago Mastery Learning 0107, Distar 0108, ECRE 0109 and other highly structured approaches that directly focused on the teaching of reading. After spending time in a variety of districts and classrooms, I can no longer maintain this attitude.

In several classrooms I visited, I saw balanced language arts programs absolutely destroyed when coupled with programs of this sort. I now argue that teachers, administrators, and school board members cannot afford to take a passive stance. Much of what we currently know about language, language learning, and the evolution of literacy stands in direct contradiction to the principles these programs advocate and the assumptions upon which these programs are based.

Much of direct instruction is an attempt to walk children through the mental steps that are needed to solve a problem they are likely to encounter again. To illustrate what I mean, let's take a rather simple example from reading.

Readers, we know, will always encounter unknown words when reading if, in fact, they are using reading as a tool for learning. Because this event is likely to occur and reoccur, the role of the teacher of reading is to teach children strategies for handling this situation. This is why, incidentally, vocabulary development, while a fringe benefit of the reading process, cannot and should not become the teacher of reading's central focus or concern. 0110

Typically in instruction a procedure is verbalized by the teacher and the children are walked through this procedure step by step. The teacher may say that the child is to look at the vowel, determine whether it is short or long, and then blend the various letters together. Usually one and only one strategy is worked on at a time.

From our classroom observations, this instructional procedure often gives the child the impression that the strategy being taught is the one and only thing that should be done. That is why how something is taught is just as important as what is taught. 0111 In reality we know that good readers might skip the word and read on, put in a synonym, or use any number of effective strategies besides just sounding it out.

During many of our observations, children attempted to sound out a word to no avail. When the strategy that was being taught failed to solve their problem, they continued trying the strategy as if there were no alternatives. This, then, is why I have recommended that one way to improve the teaching of reading is to teach skills as if they were strategies. In a sense the step-by-step delineation of find-the-vowel, decide-how-the-vowel-will-sound-in-this-word, and blend-the-sounds-together is a partial task structure of what a child might do when encountering an unknown word. The complete range of strategies that a reader might employ, if known, would be the whole task structure.

With time-on-task, if children are working on this strategy and begin to do anything other than find-the-vowel, determine-its-sound, and blend-the-letters together, they are thought to be off task. Teacher time devoted to things other than explaining this task structure also are seen as time off task. 0112

Time-on-task, then, as an instructional concept, has implications for both teachers and pupils. It suggests that the best instructional gains are made when everyone -- teachers and pupils -- stay on task. As such, time-on-task is part of the larger concepts of teacher and school effectiveness. It was in fact from studies of this sort that the concept was developed initially. 0112a

One of the issues that gets raised by this scenario is whose task is it that time is to be spent on? Since children are not just miniature adults, the logic by which we solve problems may or may not be the logic by which they solve problems.

In one time-on-task classroom that I observed, a teacher was working with a group of second graders on reading. The worksheet they were completing had several new words related to the seasons of the year. The words 'wind' and 'blow' triggered one child's memory of a story his brother had told about being in the Army and how during parachute practice one of the persons in his company had been blown off course and had broken his leg during a jump. Every time the child tried to tell this story, the teacher halted him and told him to attend to the worksheet item. The child tried to tell this story several times. Each time the teacher said, "Not now, Jaris." The reason, in fact, I know what the child wanted to say is that once the lesson was over I asked him to tell me the story he was trying to tell during reading group time (Mrs. L., Field Notes).

From a reading comprehension perspective this incident is particularly significant. We know that in order to make sense readers must relate what they are reading to what it is they currently know. Cognitively reading comprehension involves what some researchers have called 'storying'(0113) or the search for a unified meaning(0114) in light of what we already know. This recasting of new information in light of old information involves logic.(0115) Abductive logic is used when no ready match is available and readers risk posing some past experience as a metaphor which might be used to make sense of what is currently being read. Deductive logic is used to extend ideas and to make inferences that fit with the information or premises that are stated. Inductive logic is used to test ideas against reality. All of these logics are central to successful reading. This is why reading is often defined as critical thinking.(0116) Comprehension and learning involves our creating a story which others try on for size. This leads to the telling of a new story and so the process continues. By not taking the time to listen to the story that this child wished to tell, key cognitive processes in reading were being ignored and the child is left believing that the mental operations he engaged in were not valuable and in fact off-task.

Short(0117) critiques reading instruction in light of the kinds of logic it encouraged children to use. She found that in most cases the teacher and or the researchers engaged in all forms of logic in designing the lesson, but that the children often were relegated to using only deductive and inductive logics. The message, it seems to me, is clear. Children have stories to tell. Teachers must take time to listen as well to encourage 'storying' as a part of reading instruction.

Time-on-task also raises several other real instructional issues. In time-on-task it is assumed that everyone is at the same level of development and hence everyone works on the same task. The teacher, not the learner, is in charge of learning. Despite the fact that children are kept active applying the routine that was taught, they are not in charge of making decisions as to what strategy to apply given a particular situation and what it is that they have already done. They tend to become passive and in fact often persevere on a strategy when for all practical purposes its utility has been exhausted.

One researcher observed a child make 27 attempts to sound out the word hippopotamus.(0118) The child did not figure out the word, but he was not willing to employ another strategy even when the futility of the sounding-out procedure being tried was obvious even to him. Several of our field notes record similar incidents.

While there are problems with the notion of a task structure in reading because it assumes there is only one task structure per task, instructional design specialists have found this to be a useful construct. If one thinks about normal reading and writing activities there does seem to be a task structure of some sort associated with them. In shopping for groceries, for example, one has to think about what one wants to eat, run through the ingredients in recipes, mentally compare needed ingredients to those one already has, and on this basis create a shopping list. If someone other than the cook is doing the shopping, what gets written will vary by what background of information can be assumed.

The shopper, whomever it is, is likely to look through the list, identify all the things that are vegetables, meats, etc., and then proceed to these sections and pick all like items up at one time rather than pick up items in the order they are written. While the task structure in this example is much more complex than in the sounding out example, its virtue is that it is more reflective of what the task structures look like in real life.

A complete task structure underlying learning to read would be, of course, even more complex than something as simple as shopping. In actual fact we don't know much about the real task structures underlying learning to read. Few people have studied beginning reading under anything but instructional conditions. In those studies which have been done almost inevitably the task structure that the child follows differs drastically from the one adults have logically deduced.[119]

What this means, then, is that while it might be useful to think of literacy events in terms of task structures, we don't have much empirical evidence supporting what those structures are at this time. What evidence we do have suggests that rather than one, there are several task structures. Certain task structures are very much in debate. A good example of this latter case is beginning reading. That's why every new program that one picks up has a different scope and sequence chart in terms of not only what skills make up reading, but the order in which these skills are to be learned.

Materials for teaching children to read inevitably have a task structure built into them. When this structure is put in the form of instructional materials, it often looks more fixed than the developer, logic, or existing research would support. Nonetheless, teachers, parents, and administrators, given our observations, often take this task structure as carved in stone. Sometimes the structure is reified to the point where checklists are created and teachers are asked to make sure each step is covered in the order it is presented in the reading materials being used. What may have even started out to be a tentative task structure has, through publication and attempts to implement it, become fixed and rigid. School people often seem quite sure of the task structure in beginning reading and are willing to stand behind it; few researchers who have studied beginning reading would be so certain or bold.

As if this issue were not complex enough as it is, researchers who have studied literacy in the workplace have found that under natural conditions literacy events are much more complex than this discussion on task structure would suggest. If shoppers, for example, are having problems finding an ingredient on their shopping list, rather than work their way through the task structure, what they tend to do is ask someone like a clerk or another shopper. Language is social. This means that there are task structures and participant structures in literacy events.(120)

In reality there are also modality structures, in that literacy events involve speaking, art, and other modes of expression in addition to print.(121) This is why textbooks have pictures, charts, graphs, maps. All of these systems carry meaning and support the communicative function of the task structure. McDonalds understands this. That why the golden arches and Ronald McDonald were created.

In real instances of reading and writing, if language users get blocked by the task structure, they turn to the participant or the modality structure to circumvent the blockage.

Needless to say, given what we currently know about the complexity of literacy events, time-on-task when applied to reading and writing is problematic. Instructionally, this concept focuses everyone's attention on the task structure of a literacy event while ignoring other natural structures available in instances of written language use. Thus programs following time-on-task procedures to teach literacy in schools look quite different from how it is that literacy works in the real world. Often reading and writing under time-on-task conditions are harder in school that they are in real life. Children who have problems completing the steps in the task structure can ask the teacher for help but what tends to follow is a repeat of instructions. Children are reminded of what steps they were to follow. Teachers send students back to the task structure rather than give them the kind of help they might offer a fellow shopper if asked a question about where something was located. In some classrooms, rather than turn to the teacher, the language user is free to turn to a neighbor and ask for help; that is, use the participant structure. In time-on-task schools, however, such behavior is defined as time-off-task and the child is reprimanded to do his or her own work.

Assertive Discipline

Assertive discipline is an auxiliary program designed to eliminate discipline problems and let teachers get on with the business of teaching. Teachers are told that they have a right to teach. Students are in schools to learn.(122)

Typically a set of public rewards are associated with good conduct. Poor conduct is not rewarded. In classrooms in which I observed, the names of children who misbehaved were put on the blackboard. Misbehavior was defined as everything from fighting, to talking when they were supposed to be working, to failing to complete assignments. Students whose names were not on the board were given an award at the end of the day. In one classroom this was a smiley face which the children colored and taped on the front board under their names. At the end of the week if a child had 5 smiley faces a special award was given. In one classroom the children went out for ice cream; in another children could trade in smiley faces to buy school items such as pencils, tablets, and the like (Mrs. M., Field Notes).

Discipline is specific, direct, and focused. Everyone knows exactly what specific behavior is to be terminated. Peer pressure adds to the effectiveness of the program. To this end teachers often develop 'super awards' if all members of the class get 5 smiley faces for a week.

In situations where assertive discipline and time-on-task are both found, the problems in time-on-task and language learning are accented. Here any attempt to use the natural participant structure that normally exists in this language event is punished first with the child's name going on the board, and finally by withholding awards such as recess.

Under these conditions, children receive the message over and over again that reading is a disciplined activity and that if they were competent they could do it on their own. In reality successful readers and writers outside of school continually use participant and modality structures in literary events to support their involvement.(123) To be considered truly literate you need to know when and how to use these structures. Literacy instruction under time-on-task conditions becomes distorted. The child learns lessons informed language teachers should never teach, and develops a dysfunctional view of what it is that successful readers and writers do.

There are, of course, alternatives to time-on-task and assertive discipline. Given what we don't know about the 'tasks' involved in literacy events, the alternatives we saw being used by some teachers seem worth sharing.(124) These teachers set up their classrooms so that children were engaged in natural reading and writing events. Students kept journals, wrote letters to pen pals, and used message boards to communicate with teachers and classmates (Mrs. E, Field Notes). Unit approaches to teaching were often used. Children were told that they would be spending the next 9 weeks on the history of Indiana and that at the end of this period it was assumed that they would produce a report on some phase of Indiana history that interested them.

Students could select any topic which they wished after they had interviewed and talked with parents and explored centers that might give them ideas. The teacher took them to the library, helped them find materials to read, discussed what other places they might go for information, and encouraged classmates to bring in books they might have for other children to use. Once the children had gathered and recorded on 3 by 5 cards all of the information they had on their topics,(125) the teacher gave them strategies that they might use to make sense of and structure their report. Drafts were written. The children received feedback from peers and on the basis of this information rewrote. The final document was shared orally as well as formally at a Science Fair.

Discipline was rarely a problem in these settings. In one classroom the teacher had established a quiet area and any child who did not feel like interacting with other children for a period could opt to go to this area. When classrooms got noisy or it looked like children were not being productive group sharing times were called. Teachers could, during such times, check on progress and offer suggestions on how various children might proceed. Children needing more help were given it, while those who didn't could get on with the business of using reading and writing as tools for learning.

Teachers, such as the one described above, attempted to make reading instruction look like real reading in that all task structures, participant structures, and modality structures normally associated with the activity were available for use by children in the instructional setting. Often there is quite a difference between 'reading' and 'reading instruction.' Classrooms should provide opportunities for children to engage in, see demonstrated, and come to value the strategies of successful written language use and learning. They should not be places where it takes special strategies to be successful. They should be places where children can experience what real literacy is all about; where they can test their wings; where auxiliary programs support and build from what we currently know, not, like time-on-task and assertive discipline, set back our language programs.

Probably We Need Another Standardized Test

One of the most interesting findings from our review of recent research was how infrequently standardized tests of reading achievement are used as the criterion measure in studies of reading comprehension instruction. In fact, less that 5 percent of the studies we examined use standardized tests of reading comprehension. Most -- 95 percent -- contain researcher-designed tests or use other criteria. Put frankly, standardized tests of reading achievement are rarely used as criterion measures in studies of reading comprehension.(126)

Schools, on the other hand, almost exclusively use standardized tests of reading achievement to document reading achievement and growth. In some districts we studied, administering standardized testing consumed fully one/ninth of the school year. In this same system, instructional objectives were directly derived from the results of this test and instructional activities planned to correspond directly to particular subscores. Teachers were required to record the exact date that they began working on a particular skill as well as to record any progress made and the date that mastery supposedly occurred.

The differences between school and research practice are in this instance striking. If we assume that researchers feel that they are studying key cognitive operations in reading (and I can assure you they do), then it seems that they are saying that standardized tests of reading do not measure these things. Some researchers in fact have stated this quite frankly. Others say they do not know what standardized tests of reading measure.

Many, many reading educators are concerned with standardized reading tests.(127) The literature is replete with articles discussing the shortcomings of such tests. Researchers are critical because these tests ask children to do everything but read, because the topics of articles in standardized tests are unfamiliar to children, and because the selections are so short that children are never permitted to demonstrate key strategies we now associate with successful readers. One researcher has taken the time to show that the same score can mean a number of different things depending on the particular items that were missed.(128)

Several researchers have studied standardized tests from the reader's perspective.(129) After a student completed an item, regardless of whether or not the item was completed correctly, the researcher asked, "How did you figure out the answer you marked?" Student responses varied greatly. Often -- more often than anyone would have assumed -- children got the correct answer for the wrong reasons, and the wrong answer for essentially the right reasons. This research clearly suggests that children take a quite different mental trip when reading for a standardized test than they do when reading for enjoyment or using reading as a tool for learning.

In one classroom we observed a teacher had created a learning center using end-of-unit tests found in a basal reading series available in the school. The teacher in this instance introduced the activity by saying that tests were what the school used to judge how literate the children were and that therefore it was important that they understand how tests work and that they do well on these tests. Children were invited to complete these tests as they had time. At the end of the week, papers were scored and children having difficulty with certain subsections were informed as to who among their classmates had done well. Children who scored poorly were told to talk to someone who had performed better. In one conversation I overheard, one first grader was saying to another:

> "Well, you see, that's the problem....Here [pointing to the test] you start by reading the questions....Then you just look for the answers....You don't really read....It's not like real reading, you know." (Field Notes)

Experiences such as this suggest that doing well on a reading test is something quite different from doing well reading. The kind of thinking and procedures readers follow to make sense of a reading test is quite different from the kind of thinking and procedures followed in real reading.

There are several important lessons to be learned from this experience. The first is that the least we can do is be truthful. As long as tests are a reality of public life -- particularly schooling -- we have, as educators, some responsibility to introduce them to children. The teacher in this instance simply presented tests as another context of literacy. In doing so she made sure that the children understood that this wasn't 'real reading,' but rather a particular form of reading called testing which schools used. As the conversation between two first graders shows, children can handle these differences and even come to grips with them. Where we have made mistakes in the past is that we have tended to present reading tests as if they represented what real reading was all about.

The second lesson to be learned from this experience is that a program of evaluation ought to include much more than just a program of testing. Given a balanced reading program, evaluation ought to cover all phases, not just some portion of it. When tests are equated with evaluation of the school program, distortions occur. What gets tested is what gets taught. Aspects not tested get dropped from the program. Tests become curriculum. The tail begins to wag the dog, rather than the other way around. This is particularly serious when standardized test scores are taken as an index of a reading program's success or used to judge teacher effectiveness.

The third message is more mundane and yet more practical. Before any test is adopted, teachers, administrators, parents, and school board members should schedule a meeting and actually take the test themselves. We used this approach in attempting to understand what it was that the tests that children were given were attempting to measure. If the test is full of tricky items, or covers skills not seen as central to successful reading, some more reasonable sense can be made of the scores children receive.

This single act, I suspect, if done systematically by school boards prior to spending good money on the test, would mean that several currently very popular standardized tests would die the natural death they have so richly earned.

These criticisms should be extended to other standardized tests. SAT scores are often used for admission purposes in colleges. One leading measurement authority argues that the SAT is not an achievement test, but a reading test.(130) Ralph Nader found that he could predict a 50 point increase in the SAT score for every $500 more of family income.(131) Findings such as this re-raise the issue of what it is that these tests measure and what role they play in a democratic society. To the extent that Nader's findings are true of all tests, it clearly raises the issue of discrimination and the role that tests play in that process.

To focus the discussion at this general a level, however, is to miss the central and extremely practical issues that are raised by our findings. I'm thinking here of the twin issues of evaluation and accountability. The key questions that administrators, teachers and school board members need to ask are: (1) What is the role of evaluation in a balanced reading and writing curriculum?, and (2) What form should accountability take?

Evaluation

Earlier I discussed curriculum as a transaction between a plan of operation (a paper curriculum) and the mental trip that is taken by the language learner (the actualized curriculum). The relationship between these two aspects of curriculum is always dynamic, each affecting and affected by the other.

It is important to have a clear notion of what curriculum is and is not in order to develop a sound policy relative to evaluation. In far too many of the classrooms we observed curriculum was defined as the set of materials that were purchased for teachers and students to use. While materials are an important component of curriculum, to equate the two is to lose the one thing that curriculum should always offer and that is perspective.

As mentioned, in far too many other classrooms, standardized tests became the curriculum. Scores on these tests determined what would be taught and in what order such skills would be presented.

From an instructional standpoint, a test is any situation that affords educators the opportunity to make an improved instructional decision.(132) This definition has two important implications. The first has to do with the relationship between labeling and curriculum; the second with the need to expand the types and kinds of criterion measures being used to judge effective reading.

First, defining a test as any situation that affords the opportunity to make an improved instructional decision means that if tests are used simply to label children they are being misused. From our observations this is clearly the case and it is getting worse each year. In most districts a whopping 7 and 1/2 percent of the total school population was identified as needing 'special education' and this figure was growing at a rate of 1/2 of a percent each year. Special service units in some cooperatives are larger than entire school districts. In other districts students had to take a competency test at the end of their senior year and were labeled 'competent' or 'incompetent' upon graduation. Those labelled 'incompetent' were offered no instructional program; they were just labeled and sent on their way.

These trends are frightening even if standardized tests of reading were valid measures of reading. These trends mean that the curriculum in regular education is failing and, rather than our rethinking what is or should be happening, all sorts of children are being shunted off to special education. Further, reading is being used as the principle criterion for making these decisions.

On paper special education has elaborate criteria to stop programs from becoming dumping grounds for the failures of regular education. Yet these safeguards fail largely because if you give enough tests -- and especially tests that look less and less like reading and more and more like tests of reading skills -- you will always get the test data you need to support the claim that the child is not doing well in the regular program.(133)

The second issue that our definition of a test raises concerns the criterion measures used to judge a reading program's success. Standardized tests are but one form of criteria and not particularly good ones if we are to take seriously the first graders (conversation reported earlier) and the critics of testing. Teacher-made tests, informal observation, library usage, and ongoing performance on projects involving reading and writing are other forms.

This means that a good program of evaluation needs to be multidimensional and reflective of the entire program, not just the skills subsection of it.(134) Right now if more than one measure of reading is being used the second measure, like the first measure, is another standardized test. Since these tests measure largely the same skills and are similar in theoretical orientation, rather than give a new perspective on the program, results tend to reconfirm each other and students are put in double jeopardy. It's much like being tried twice for the same crime by the same judge and jury.

Given the current state of testing and the kinds of tests that are on the market, it is important that multiple measures -- formal as well as informal assessments -- be taken and used. These assessments need not be time-consuming nor disruptive, but rather can be made a part of the ongoing program of activity in the classroom.

Teachers in this regard can take their lead from researchers. In the research studies we reviewed everything from art ("Draw a picture of what the story meant to you") to writing ("Now that we have read several fairy tales, test your understanding of fairy tales by writing one") to storying ("Now that we have read about Indiana in the early days, I'd like you to work with a neighbor and write a story showing what life was like from the perspective of someone who lived during this time) was used.(135)

Often researchers have found that the best language testing situation is a group of students working together, not a single student working in isolation as is traditional.(136) Under group conditions a teacher can observe if the learner takes advantage of the social resources that are present. This is particularly important in the evaluation of language, as both reading and writing are social by their very nature. Writers, for example, rarely write alone and in silence. Most write, read, revise, permit others to read drafts, get feedback, revise, reread, ask someone to edit, all before they send their work off to a publisher. Good readers use what they have learned from debates engged in while reading a book. They criticize, develop counter points, and essentially argue their way through books.(137) Critical reading, like writing, is in this sense social. The strategies that good readers use are first learned in open discussion and then internalized. What looks like a silent, private act, has its roots and foundations in social interaction. By creating classroom environments which make the social resources of successful written language use and learning available to children, ongoing observations of who uses what under what conditions provides important information not only for assessing the growth of the students in the room, but for developing and redeveloping curriculum.

Evaluation ought not be something laid upon curriculum, but rather an integral part of the curricular process. The districts we observed that used the results of the tests they administered to plan instruction were, in this sense, right. Where they went wrong was in assuming that a particular standardized test could measure all that was of any significance in their program.

Accountability

To clarify these points Figure 6 shows a schematized model of curriculum entitled, "Towards a Practical Theory of Curriculum."(138) Its key components are theory, evaluation, and instruction.

Figure 6: Towards a Practical Theory of Curriculum

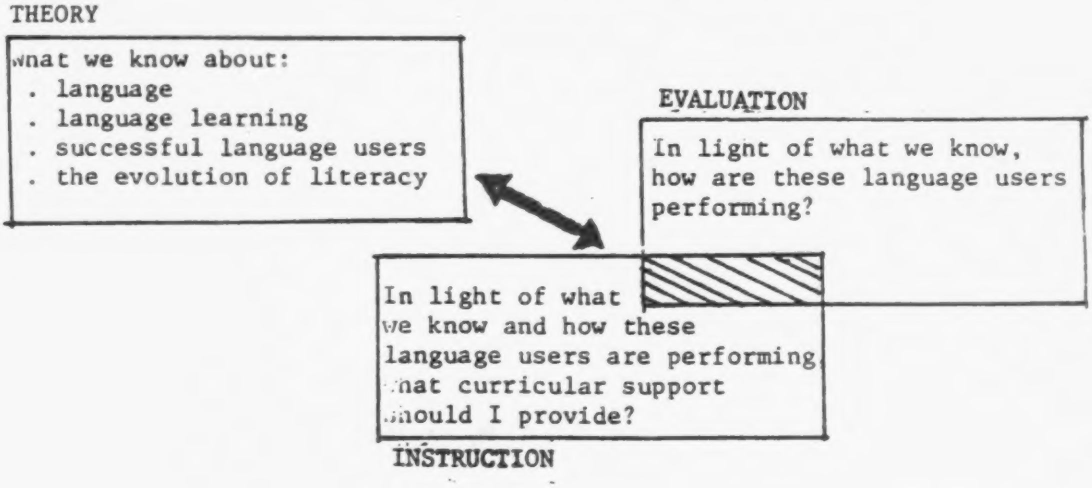

THEORY
what we know about:
. language
. language learning
. successful language users
. the evolution of literacy
EVALUATION
In light of what we know, how are these language users performing?
In light of what we know and how these language users are performing, what curricular support should I provide?
INSTRUCTION

Figure 6 suggests that we begin to plan balanced reading curriculum based on 4 areas of knowledge: (1) our understanding of the reading process; (2) our understanding of the writing process; (3) our understanding of successful written language users and learners; and (4) our understanding of the evolution of literacy. It is upon this knowledge base that curriculum planning begins. Theoretical positions relative to each of these topics are public documents and ought to be explicit and available for parents, teachers and others to examine and revise as needed. The Edmonton Public Schools' position statement on reading and language arts is an example worth reading as it reflects and incorporates more of what we know than do most such documents.(139)

Evaluation, by this model, is or ought to be theoretically consistent with the underlying tenets of the balanced program which has been outlined by the school district. The essential question evaluation asks is, "In light of what we know about reading, writing, successful written language use and learning, and the evolution of literacy, how are these learners doing?" Notice the question implies a social setting and observation of these learners in light of what we currently know. There is, in that sense, a conscious attempt to gather data that relates to our knowledge base and that allows for more intelligent

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decision-making and instructional improvement.

Instruction, the third component of this model of curriculum, asks the question, "In light of what we know, and how well these language users and learners are doing, what instructional support should I provide?" Notice that this model suggests that instruction be theoretically based and future oriented. Instructional support can take many forms. New opportunities to test hypotheses in a low-risk environment is support. So is an instructional environment rich with opportunities and invitations to expand one's repertoire of reading and writing strategies. Choice is an integral part of support. By letting the language user decide whether to read the book on bridges or the book on badgers, decisions have to be made and pros and cons weighed. This decision-making, or choice is what allows the language arts curriculum to operate off stage; it is what gets students to read prior to reading and write when they are not writing.

Evaluation, by this model, is an integral part of the instructional cycle. Its role is twofold: to inform theory and to inform instructional decision-making. If evaluation does not serve these functions, it has no positive role to play in education.

In the final analysis education's goal is to create self-monitoring and self-evaluating learners. Administrators and school board members might take the lead in this move by suggesting to teachers that it is their duty to demonstrate that they have a good language arts program in terms of district goals, and that it is getting better each year. Teachers, by the same token, can ask students to devise ways to demonstrate to them that they have indeed taken the mental trips that were planned and that they have learned. Such a policy would not only move evaluation along, but also be supportive of curriculum and curriculum development at a district level.

Most teachers welcome parents, administrators, and school board members into their classrooms. Such visits provide the administrator and the school board member an opportunity to assume that a definition of reading is being played out in the classroom and to observe what it is from the perspective of the teacher and the pupils. Observers should participate in planned activities rather than just sit back and observe. Such a participatory stance increases the likelihood that the observer will experience the curriculum on a first-hand basis, through the eyes and from the perspective of the learner, rather than focus on surface feature aspects that may or may not have anything to do with the real curriculum that is occurring. This is a much richer kind of evaluation than attempting to make decisions about the quality of instruction based on the results of a standardized test. Most teachers are only too willing to share what it is that they are using as criteria for deciding the worth of the instructional activities they have planned. Not only should administrators and school board members ask teachers what their criteria are, but have a responsibility to know and to do so.

The bottom line on evaluation, then, is that standardized tests do little to move teachers and pupils towards the goal of being self-monitoring learners and, given what we currently know, tell us little about the quality of a good language arts curriculum. If the tests currently in use cannot be used by teachers to make specific and improved instructional decisions, they should be abandoned. Given a score of 57 on the vocabulary subsection of a standardized test, I for one, do not know what to teach. Given the opportunity to listen to a child orally read his or her favorite section of a library book that was self-selected, I can begin to note what strategies are and are not being used. (140) Given the opportunity to sit in on a discussion of the reading that two children may be having, I can begin to note the kind and level of thinking going on. From this information, I can easily plan instruction. This is why, I suppose, researchers tend to avoid standardized tests and use in their place very direct measures of the behaviors, attitudes, and strategies that they associate with successful written language use and learning. In this instance, teachers, administrators, and school board members can improve evaluation by taking their lead from researchers.

READING AS A TOOL FOR LEARNING

Most of the innovative change in thinking relative to reading has taken place within the last ten to fifteen years. (141) During that period several powerful theoretical models of reading have been developed. More scientists are studying the reading process today than lived in all the decades prior to this one. Under these conditions it is no wonder that there is an explosion of knowledge.

One of the key things that caused many researchers to question a skills approach to reading was watching how real readers read passages and stories. Words known in one context because they were predictable were unknown in other contexts in which the reader did not expect to find them. (142) Rather than read word-by-word, the best readers make predictions and use a variety of strategies such as skipping words, asking themselves, "Did this make sense?" and reading ahead. (143)

Then, too, researchers found that what the reader brought to the reading situation strongly affected what was gotten out of the reading selection. (144) Unlike the worksheets that had been developed under a skills approach to reading where it was assumed that everyone would get the same thing from a reading experience, variability in reading came to be seen as an expected event. Readers, it was discovered, all come to the reading experience with a wide variety of different experiences and interests. These experiences and interests affect what the reader gets out of the reading experience.(145)

Reading, during this period, became seen as a socio-psycholinguistic process rather than a prescribed set of skills or a product.(146) Researchers became interested in the mental activities involved in reading, in the mental trips taken by readers. The criterion for being a successful reader of a narrative was not what was recalled or carried off, but the mental trip or lived-through experience that the reader had while reading the text.(147)

These insights led researchers to see the outcome of reading to be critical thinking, rather than a new set of facts.(148) Good readers were cognitively active, not passive. Reading, like writing, was a tool for thinking, not just for perceiving, but for reperceiving, for thinking, rethinking, and growing.(149)

The position that seems to be evolving in the field of reading research is that in the final analysis our interest in reading and writing is an interest in learning.(150) This position has many practical implications, the majority of which still have to be explored and operationalized in classrooms.

Debbie's reading and retelling of a science article is a good instance of the practical difference between a skills model and a tool for learning model of reading. Debbie had read a selection on atoms, which she pronounced /a-toms/ throughout her reading. She was asked to retell what she had read. While her retelling is not very good in terms of her recall of facts, it is a nice instance of how Debbie is using reading to rethink, to grow, to expand.

> "It was about a-toms....I don't know....They're powerful...Energy, sort of battery-like things...Cause it can....No, a battery couldn't take a boat back and forth across the ocean lots of times....There's a big boat, I forgot to mention that....Atoms can sail a big boat with only a little bit of fuel back and forth lots of times....I doubt it!" (Field Notes; Audiotape)

Debbie is a very active and critical reader. While she doesn't get a lot of facts out of this piece, her retelling shows that she is trying to integrate what she has read with what she knows.(150a) Debbie makes the association between atoms and batteries, the closest thing in her repertoire of experience that seems to make sense. We see her applying her background of knowledge, testing hypotheses, reflexively rethinking what was said against what she knows. Given the mental trip in which she is engaged, we need not worry about Debbie as a reader. She employs powerful strategies and, while they don't guarantee a particular product, the process in which she is engaged will ensure growth and learning in the future.

What reader behaviors we value is a function of the model of reading we hold as well as what instructional materials and experiences we plan. To this end, new instructional materials and procedures in reading reflect new understandings about the reading process.(151) Quality children's literature replaces basal reading stories in instructional programs designed to reflect our current knowledge base. Content area books are introduced to children at an earlier age. Newspapers become part of classroom life. Poetry is shared. Cooking centers introduce children to environmental print and the special forms of literacy involved in reading recipes and being a successful cook.

Writing is no longer seen as a separate subject. Writing, like reading, is seen as a tool for thinking.(152) Children not only read fairy tales, but write their own. Throughout the day children are given opportunities to use writing as a vehicle for sorting out and clarifying their thinking. Reading and writing are used functionally. Rather than play the teacher's game, children actively use reading and writing to explore and expand their growing understanding of topics of interest to them. Kindergarten children do surveys, compile books of their favorite songs, read predictable books, and explore reading, writing, art, music, and dance as forms of expression.

Today the trend in some classrooms and in the research community more generally is to see reading and writing as tools for learning. One doesn't learn to read and then later read to learn; rather, every instance of reading affords the opportunity to learn reading (experience its social and personal usefulness and power), learn about reading (learn how to do it, what strategies to employ in this setting), and learn through reading (grow, change, learn).(153) Authoring is being used as metaphor for understanding both reading and writing.(154)

In upper elementary, middle school and senior high school multiple textbooks in a single class should be encouraged. In responding to the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report, A Nation at Risk,(154a) the International Reading Association published the following policy guideline:

> No single textbook can be geared to the needs of all students. This circumstance does not imply the need for writing new textbooks for poor readers. The existing market contains a plethora of texts which vary in their content, complexity, and cognitive expectations. New uses of available texts are needed. If teachers are expert enough to present model lessons which include phases such as prior knowledge activation, concept vocabulary development, purpose setting, development of conceptual interrelationships, and reinforcement of

> learning, students will have the foundation for learning from different texts in the same course. Developing the capability for using multiple texts in one class and sustaining students' strategies for learning from these texts is a challenge to the professionalism of teachers and the ingenuity of teacher educators (p.16). (155)

Evaluations of textbooks are frequently based on readability formulas. Although formulas, which contain variables of sentence length and word difficulty, manifest a gross correlation with the ease with which students learn from texts, they are insufficient. (156) Important factors that are neglected by these formulas include student interest, the number and suitability of concrete examples, clearly stated ideas in a predictable organizational pattern, and a conceptual compatibility with the prior knowledge and experience of students. One aid to textbook evaluation is an up-dated readability checklist originally formulated by Irwin and Davis and published in the Journal of Reading. (157) The questions it suggests teachers ask themselves, given the student's familiarity with particular topics and in light of the student's background of experience, are:

- Are assumptions about students' vocabulary knowledge appropriate?
- Are assumptions about students' prior knowledge of this content area appropriate?
- Are concepts explicitedly linked to students' prior knowledge or to their experiential backgrounds?
- Does the text or teacher's manual provide lists of accessible resources containing alternative readings for the very poor or very advanced readers?
- Is the writing style of the text appealing to the students?
- Are there discussion questions which encourage critical and creative thinking?
- Is there something to learn from reading this text? Does the text contain enough new information so that the student will find it worth reading?

Questions such as these are important as researchers are increasingly concerned that, given the way we are teaching reading, many children might never understand what it means to be literate or take ownership of this process. They are concerned that children will fail to experience what reading is all about. They are concerned that children will fail to understand that reading is not just a skill but a way of outgrowing one's current self; a tool for life-long learning.

Today, also, it is not uncommon to find reading researchers exploring writing and writing researchers exploring reading.(158) From the perspective of learning, both reading and writing have much in common. This discovery in fact has led researchers to step further and further back. Some have even felt it necessary to rethink the role reading plays in a system of knowing.(159) This has caused some educators to rethink what it is we mean by education. Such work has powerful implications for how we think about and teach reading.

Currently education, for example, is being defined as the study of the process by which we mediate our world for purposes of exploration and expansion (see Figure 7).(160) Since we do not have direct access to our world (all that hits our eyes are impulses of light), we create sign systems such as written language, oral language, art, music, mathematics, dance, and the like. These systems are fictions, constructs of our imagination, but they allow us to explore our world. It is with them that we mediate our world and in so doing fundamentally alter it as we explore it.

Megan, age 4, was asked to write her name and anything else that she could write.(162) She drew a picture of herself, wrote her name, wrote the number 4 -- her age, and drew 4 flowers (see Figure 8). By so doing Megan demonstrates that she has access to the very process of literacy. Megan uses a variety of symbols to sign and explore who she is. It is upon this base that effective school programs can be built. As the Megan example illustrates, such programs support children in using and exploring processes they have already begun to explore prior to school.

We now know that atoms, for example, do not really exist. They are a figment of some scientist's imagination. Yet as a construct the notion that the world is composed of atoms has been helpful. It allowed us to understand our world, to grow, to develop an atom bomb, to win a war, to expand our notion of energy. Today, physicists tell us that quarks, not atoms, are the smallest things on earth. To grow, old signs -- in this case atoms -- had to be abandoned and a new construct had to be developed. We have yet to know what this new construct will allow us to understand.

Education, by this view, is the study of this process of sign production and use. To be really educated is to have an understanding not only of what signs have been produced by past generations and where these constructs have gotten us, but also to have an understanding of the role of sign production in learning.(163) Children must not only experience this process, but also learn to be reflexive so that they can outgrow past generations as well as their current self.(164) To have

Figure 7. Reading as Signification

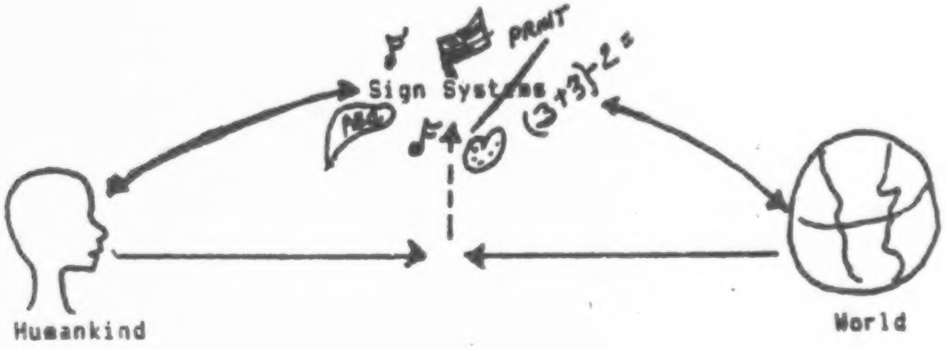
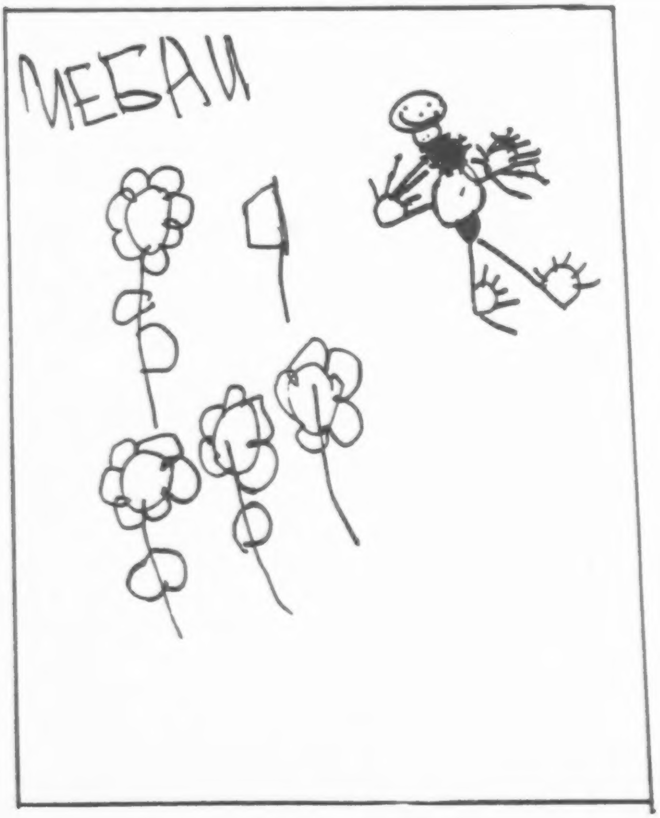


Figure 8. Megan, Age 4 (Uninterrupted Writing)



access to education is to have access to the processes of learning, signification, and reflexivity. Reading is but one sign system. As a sign system it is a tool for change. Reading researchers are not so interested today in what the reader carried off, but how the reader has grown or changed by having had a reading experience. The key question a good reader ought to ask after having read a selection is not what facts do I now know, but rather, how have I changed as a function of having read.

As is evident from this discussion, how researchers, teachers, parents, school board members and administrators perceive reading is important. When viewed as a skill, reading is seen as a rote, rather mindless activity which needs to be practiced frequently in order to be maintained. When viewed as a tool for learning, reading is seen as a vehicle for critical thinking and growth. Quality reading experiences, rather than the quantity of experiences, become important. The issue isn't how many books have the children read, but what mental trips have they taken as a function of having read. School policies ought to reflect what it is we currently know and understand about the reading process. Instructional policies ought to encourage teachers to set up functional reading and writing environments, introduce and explore a variety of print settings, and encourage children actively to use reading and writing to learn. Policy makers should be mindful that there are a variety of instructional methods and approaches available to reach these goals. School policy should set directions but not dictate materials and approaches. Teachers should be free to test their best instructional hypothesis relative to creating a supportive environment for learning in their classroom. Reading and writing are, within such policy guidelines, to be presented and used as tools for learning. While some teachers might use learning centers as their organizational device, others might use a unit approach and still others literature groups, science clubs, and 'what I want to become' study groups.(165) We have been in classrooms where all these and other organizational devices have been successfully employed by teachers in the name of improved reading instruction.

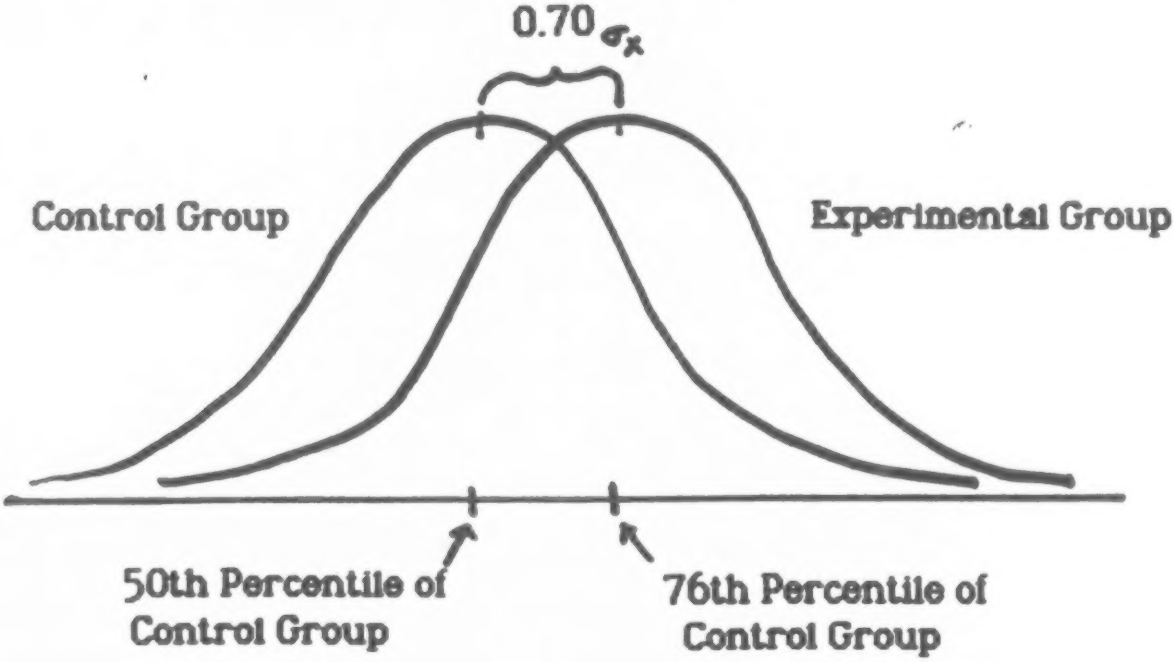
LEADERSHIP FOR CHANGE: WHY & HOW?

Why?

Probably the simplistic answer to this question is that much of what we thought we knew about teaching reading has been shown to be faulty. Given our review of instructional research in reading comprehension, almost anything you do beyond just a basal reading program significantly improves reading comprehension. Essentially we were charged to study what the profession knows about teaching reading comprehension for the purposes of improving practice. To this end we identified instructional studies in reading comprehension and studied their characteristics. We located and read some 525 studies. A good many of these studies compared the progress of groups of children receiving an experimental treatment to the progress other children were making using the basal reader as their instructional program.(166)

Figure 9 compares the average score that the experimental treatment group received and contrasts this with the average score that the regular basal reading group received across a variety of studies and assessment instruments. As can be seen, students in experimental programs scored more than 2/3rd of a standard deviation over and above the control or basal reading groups to which they were compared. This difference is significant. Given the kind of gains we have come to expect it represents almost a full year's growth over and above children who just received the regular program.

Figure 6. Average Gain Effects: Treatment Versus Control Groups



One way to interpret this data is to say that its message to teachers is to do something. We coded, for example, each study we read in terms of what aspects of the reading process were being studied. These included text factors, reader factors, task or instructional factors, and processing factors. To fully understand the significance of this message it is important to have some understanding of the range of studies that are subsumed in this finding.

Text studies, for example, included all sorts of studies that attempt in one way or another to make the material used in reading more comprehensible to readers. Research studies that we coded as highlighting text factors studied the effects of putting subheading in content area materials, the effects of getting children to create their own subheading in texts, the effects of using predictable reading materials in beginning reading instruction, the effects of using illustrations to aid readability, as well as the effects of helping children develop a conceptual map of the materials they read as an aid to comprehension. Despite the variety, the average effect of these various practices was a .77 gain effect over and above regular reading instruction.[167]

Reader studies highlighted reader factors rather than text factors. Studies coded as highlighting the reader included those that attempted to get the reader to bring his or her background information to the reading process, studies which used culturally relevant materials as the basis of reading instruction, as well as studies which allowed children to choose their own reading materials based on personal interest. Again, despite the variety of ways in which the reader was highlighted and focused upon, the average gain effect for experimental treatments over and above control groups was .60 of one standard deviation.[168]

Task studies included those that attempted to alter the instructional environment or typical instructional procedures that are used in basals. These studies explored the use of groups and group discussion as an aid to comprehension, lesson frameworks which attempt to get teachers systematically to activate student background knowledge prior to reading as a technique for increasing comprehension, as well as studies which were designed to enrich the literacy environment of the classroom. Included in this latter category were studies in which the functional nature of reading and writing activities were addressed. In these instances researchers attempted to make the reading and writing tasks in classrooms more functional or more immediately practical for children. Children read and did research on topics of interest to them. Reading and writing were often integrated. Students kept journals, wrote letters, sent notes, and engaged in other natural uses of reading and writing. Other studies purposefully expanded the print environments normally introduced to children in the name of reading and writing instruction. In these studies children were introduced to content area materials earlier, wrote their own reading materials, or shared literature they had elected to read. Again the overall gain effect for studies exploring aspects of the instructional task environment was .69 gain effect.[169]

Processing studies attempted to get readers to engage in higher-level cognitive processing. Children were encouraged in some studies to monitor meaning as they read, draw inferences, make analogies between the thing they were reading about and some other experience which was more familiar, create metaphors as an aid to comprehension, engage in visual imagery, and in some cases even recast their understanding of a text in terms of other modes of expression such as drama or art. Instructional studies which focused on higher levels of processing again showed, on the average, a gain effect of 1.04.(170)

In interpreting this data it is important to remember that for the most part all the instructional procedures we studied were theoretically-based, that is grounded in terms of newly acquired insights into the reading process. While it appears that anything you do results in a gain effect over and above business as usual, it is important to remember that the 'anythings' we studied were firmly rooted in our knowledge base.

Most of the studies mentioned above, however, were experimental studies. Essentially what the researcher did was to manipulate one and only one thing in each study. What we found surprising is that under such conservative conditions, so much gain effect was shown.

Unlike experimental studies, ethnographic studies typically involve bigger changes.(171) In an ethnography, the researcher spends long periods of time in classrooms -- typically a semester or more -- works with the classroom teacher and collaborates systematically to alter and improve the learning environment. While there are often differences in the criterion measures used between experimental and ethnographic studies, there is nonetheless some evidence that, under ethnographic research conditions, the gain effect is larger, often twice as much as that reported in experimental studies. To some extent this is logical. Ethnographies involve significantly altering the learning environment as well as the level of expectation on the part of teachers and pupils. In one Texas study in which the researcher worked with two first grade teachers for over a year, children in the experimental classrooms made almost 2 years gain effect over and above children at the same grade level in the same school following a more traditional program.(172) A Michigan study reported that children who were asked to write as part of their reading program outscored first grade children in a phonics program on the phonics subsection of a standardized reading achievement test.(173)

Because the amount of directly comparable data that exists are limited, it is hard to draw conclusions. It is worth noting that these gain effects are, however, conservative. They fail to capture reported changes in children's attitudes towards reading and writing as well as the enthusiasm and excitement that is found in these classrooms by teachers and children alike.

The encouraging trend in instructional research these days is that increasingly newer researchers entering the field are moving towards collaboration rather than engaging in experimental studies. Often the classrooms that have been used as the research site are becoming demonstration centers where other teachers can go to get new ideas and to see new programs in operation. While the inservice benefits of these programs have not typically been measured, this clearly is a benefit worth studying and thinking about by school districts. As more and more of these studies are done a clearer picture of the patterns and overall instructional and professional effects will become known.

How?

In an attempt to understand effective school change, we identified what we thought were places which were leading the profession in terms of reading and reading instruction.(174) Programs that we looked at and attempted to study and understand had taken place in Arizona,(175) Colorado,(176) Hawaii,(177) Illinois,(178) Indiana,(179) Michigan,(180) Missouri,(181) New Hampshire,(182) New Mexico,(183) New York,(184) North Dakota,(185) Ohio,(186) Texas,(187) Edmonton,(188) Halifax,(189) and Winnipeg.(190) Several things distinguished these programs.

Collaboration/Demonstration Centers/Teacher Support Groups

First and almost inevitably, teachers and researchers were collaboratively working together to effect school change. In the best programs a real partnership had developed. More often than not classroom demonstration centers had been created. Other teachers from the district and across the nation could and did visit these sites to understand what was going on. Often these teachers would take ideas home and try them in their own classrooms. In one district the school board supported a two-week sabbatical program for teachers in the district in conjunction with these demonstration center classrooms. Teachers in the district were invited to apply for these sabbaticals. When received they could spend two weeks in the demonstration classroom actually working with the teacher. They received no money directly, instead the sabbatical paid for a substitute teacher for their room.

This process often resulted in a network of teachers who met regularly to study and share what it was they were doing and gather ideas about what to do next. Sometimes the groups met monthly, sometimes only in the summer. Some formed themselves into study groups and continued to meet regularly throughout the year. These networks were in a sense teacher support groups.

More often than not, successful support groups had an academic leader from a local university attached to them. While university personnel often provided a focus, the exciting dimension of these programs was that teachers were helping teachers. They not only shared with one another articles that they had found, but formed a thought collective with shared common values and experiences.

Over and over again teachers who were involved in projects of this sort were active in professional organizations. Many teacher support groups ran inservice programs for the district, taught workshops, and were frequent presentors at state and national meetings of reading and language arts educators. Many of the teachers in these projects had decided to go on with advanced study in the areas of reading, writing, or the language arts. Professionally these attitudes and experiences put them well ahead of their less active colleagues.

Teachers as Researchers and Learners

The single feature that most characterized these various programs was the teachers' attitude about learning, not any particular activity. In fact, the activities ranged from teachers working on how to improve reading comprehension, to other groups who were principally focused on writing, to still other groups who were interested in exploring how reading and writing might more successfully be integrated in the classroom. Some focused on regular education, others special education, others bilingual problems, and still others on inner-city issues and concerns.

Attitudinally, there was an attempt to build viable instructional programs based on recent insights and understanding of the reading process. Teachers took risks, discussed options, tried them out, and then rehashed them in terms of what had happened and how they might improve the activity. During teacher support group meetings, other teachers were invited and often did take these ideas and run with them, trying them out in their classrooms, and discussing differences, achievements, and other possible revisions or extensions. Teachers in these programs were real learners. Theirs was the pursuit of a practical theory of literacy. In visiting several of these groups there was an excitement about teaching, children, and learning that was refreshing to see in these days of teacher burnout and all of the talk of school failure.

Theoretically-Based

Unlike demonstration centers in the past in which there was an attempt to disseminate programs that work rather than those that both work and are theoretically sound, teachers in these programs had a firm grip on theory. The longer their involvement the more firmly grounded they seemed to become.

There were no general patterns of where groups had begun, though the one pattern that seemed to emerge was that issues of immediate and practical concern were often what was addressed first. It was only later that theoretical consistency and larger issues were addressed.

Change started small and grew as new aspects of the curriculum were brought into focus and thought about. Rarely was change associated with the selection of a new reading series, a new standardized test of reading being adopted, or a new management system. More frequently change began within the thought collective with a particular classroom project (creating a library for the children in the classroom to use) and specific lessons which the teacher was planning to present. (191)

In one study in which the focus of the project was upon integrating reading and writing more effectively in the reading program, the teacher and researcher often exchanged roles. Whoever planned the lesson walked the other collaborator through the activity during a teacher planning meeting. After the initial presentation, everyone on the team contributed to how it was that reading and writing might be even further integrated in this lesson.

Teachers often made modification to theory. Teachers in all the programs we visited knew how to talk about what it was they were doing or attempting to do in their classroom. With time, theory became used as a self-correction device. Practices that were no longer theoretically consistent with the position they had come to hold were being re-examined and revised to be made theoretically consistent with the rest of their program.

Leadership and Change

Intellectual leadership came from many sources. In some instances it was the principal. By and large principals who were effective change agents administered by wandering more than by fiat. Rarely were they in their office. Most spent up to 70 percent of their time in classrooms, working with and learning with teachers. Few acted as if they had the answers, rather their approach was let's try it and see.

This is not to suggest, however, that change agents who were effective were eclectic in their approach to reading. All took strong positions, knew what they wanted, and worked to support their teachers and the change that they were attempting to make.

Principals were not the key agents of change in many schools or districts that had successful programs. When they were, the change seemed to be less frustrating to the teachers involved, but nevertheless it still occurred. Some weak principals were effective largely because they knew enough to turn leadership over to either a subordinate or a knowledgeable professional at a neighboring college.

In all cases effective change programs seem to be associated with particular people. Some one person or a group of people, in each case, took leadership. Sometimes this was a classroom teacher who was perceived by others as knowing a lot about reading, sometimes it was the reading specialist, sometimes it was a curriculum supervisor, sometimes someone from a local college or university.

Effective change agents began by working with one person instead of all of the teachers in the building. Successes in this room were shared with other teachers in the building who were interested. School-wide change seemed to occur rapidly, once a critical mass -- 60 percent or more -- of the teachers had moved in a certain direction.

What was surprising to us was how often principals and administrators were seen as real obstacles to progress in what from our estimation were very effective change projects. Over and over again school policy seems to be geared to support the weakest teachers in the district rather than the strongest. Teachers in projects complained that they were often asked to implement practices and sit through inservice programs that violated what they knew about language, language learning, and good teaching. Since schools are likely to improve by running with their best teachers rather than their weakest ones, policies such as this are extremely short-sighted. One administrator told me that creative teachers in his district did not need to follow the very restrictive management plan that several teachers had complained to me about. When I asked him what it is that a teacher would have to do to be seen as 'creative' he could not answer me.

This is, of course, a real problem, both for him and the teacher to say nothing about the profession and the future. There are no easy answers to the issues raised here. But I think too often in attempting to provide answers we forget what we know about teaching and learning. Teaching and learning are a relationship. It takes two willing participants to engage in the process. As a teacher I create a supportive language learning environment based on what I know and invite children to participate and take the mental trips that I associate with successful language use and learning. As an administrator I think I can only do the same. So in the final analysis I have to support the teacher's right to choice even if that choice may not be my choice. As an administrator this means that I continue to set up an environment that I think is conducive to growth in ways

I think best. Within this context, teachers have the right to participate or not.

Teachers, like researchers, do not have a right to ignore the current knowledge base. When this base is confronted, there are a multitude of hypotheses worthy of test. Unless one is clairvoyant all lines of inquiry must be kept open. While I might not personally conduct a study in the area of phonics, I nonetheless have found work in this area interesting and informative.

Teacher Choice

Change was rarely forced upon teachers in the most effective school projects, rather teachers were provided the opportunity and the support to test ideas they felt were consistent with the direction being taken. Mandated school change rarely worked. Change agents often began by working with teachers who were the most amenable to change, rather than taking on teachers most resistant to change. In some instances this was as few as one teacher; in big districts it was as many as 125. Typically under these latter conditions a select group of teachers -- 12 in the case of Denver -- were identified and worked with intensely. Teachers who were not ready to change or who felt strongly about what it was they were currently doing were permitted to run their own program. All teachers were invited to take as little or as big a step as they liked. Small steps typically led to bigger steps and bigger change.

For the most part all of these programs involved much more complex and elaborate change than did the typical research study that we reviewed as part of this project. Modest hypotheses grew into exciting and multifaceted programs of reading, writing, and learning. Rarely were timid hypotheses being tested.

On the whole nothing achieves like success. While personnel in these projects often talked about the need to get to administrators, other teachers, school board members, state department of education people, federal policy makers and others, in the end it was their own experience and classrooms that did the most to sell the program to themselves, other teachers, and administrators in the school district. Teachers often initially worried about doing the program right. With time they realized that this was the wrong attitude, that essentially they had to begin. They, like the children in their classrooms, had the right to make mistakes and grow from them.

Parent Involvement (192)

Parent involvement was central to the success of many programs. Parents often acted as a teacher support group and defended the program when administrators seemed unsupportive.

In the best programs there was a conscious effort to keep parents informed. No single format for parent involvement was found, but rather parents were provided options on how they might participate.

Most programs had parent nights of some sort. The most successful parent programs were those in which the children were in charge of planning. Teachers used some time during parents day to present their program and discuss it with parents.

Parents who did not want their child in the program were permitted the option to request a different teacher. Parents in some districts were permitted to request what teacher they wanted for their child. These requests were sent to the principal and honored. Teachers never knew how many parents had requested them, nor were there public releases of this information. While initially teachers and administrators were apprehensive, this program worked so well that it was continued and expanded. Parents were particularly grateful and teachers reported that on the whole they found parents to be more supportive of their school after the policy went into effect than they were prior to that time.

Effective programs seem to treat parents as partners in learning. Classrooms were open to parents, and parents were invited to come to participate rather than to just watch. Parent education was an important component of inservice. The attitude was taken that parents had a right to be informed, that it was in the profession's interests to do so, and that parents ask for programs which reflect what they know. If we want them to be supportive of change and to ask for more, then it behooves us to help them update and build their knowledge base.

Time

Effective programs of change occurred only over time. There were in this sense no quick fixes. Extended involvement by a core group of people seemed to be key. Often experts from outside the district were brought in, but these tended to be well chosen and carefully timed. In some instances experts really said nothing knew. Their role appeared to be to legitimize the direction in which the local group of leaders were attempting to move. On the average, programs of change had been in place from 3 to 7 years with many extended beyond this limit. From a few teachers the program had grown in some cases throughout the building or the district. In no case was change a one-shot deal. Real change only occurred when teachers and researchers collaborated over long periods of time and where real feeling of trust and ownership of the program had been shared and developed.

CONCLUSIONS

This document is written to help teachers, administrators, and school board members establish public school policy relative to the teaching of reading and writing. This document essentially argues in a variety of ways that "policy makers do not have a right to make educators look more stupid than they really are." While this initially may strike the reader as an odd expression, saying it in this fashion acknowledges the fact that while educators don't know everything, they do know some things. In fact, given the explosion of knowledge in reading and writing during the past 10 years, language educators now know more than at any previous point in their history. It is crucial to the future of reading and teaching that educators be given the opportunity to build reflexively on this knowledge base. To recommend that all educators need to do to improve school reading and writing programs is to return to the basics is equivalent to recommending that the medical profession abandon everything it has learned and return to bloodletting.0193

School and instructional policies which support the weakest students and teachers rather than the strongest students and teachers are shortsighted. Just as instructional practices are misguided which fail to let students test their best language hypotheses, so are district policies which fail to let teachers test their best hypotheses. Because of the policies and practices in place, there are some schools where neither teachers nor students can learn. This, it seems to me, is the most devastating thing that can be said about the current state of public education in our society.

As new policies are established it is important to remember that the process by which the best teachers and students grow is the very process which must be engaged in by the poorest learners among us if they too are to grow. While the specific details may vary, there is but one learning process.

Poor kids learn the same way as rich kids. The best research evidence we have suggests that regular education students learn the same way as special education students and vice versa.0194 Before adopting a policy favoring children coming from certain kinds of homes but recommending a different, often more structured, program for students labeled 'Poor' or 'Black' or 'Special,' this finding must be recalled.0195 It follows that any environment structured so as to be conducive to our learning will also, given the available evidence, be the same environment most conducive to the learning of others, despite their labels. Intellectual welfare systems serve no one,0196 particularly such a goal as becoming a nation of language learners.

GUIDELINES FOR IMPROVING READING COMPREHENSION INSTRUCTION

The following guidelines encapsulate the information presented in this report about the conditions that are likely to improve the teaching of reading in schools. These guidelines are written to help educators evaluate current, and formulate new, school policies and practices. They build on what we have learned about reading from both research and practice. They are designed to move schools and nations beyond risk -- toward becoming communities of language learners.

1. Teachers should plan a reading curriculum which is broad enough to accommodate every student's growth, flexible enough to adapt to individual and cultural characteristics of pupils, specific enough to assure growth in language and thinking, and supportive enough to guarantee student success. Research shows that children in even supposedly homogeneous reading groups differ greatly from each other. Curricular experiences selected for reading instruction should be open-ended, allowing each student to participate regardless of experience or school level. Individual or group research projects, learner-centered literature study groups, and pen pal letter exchange programs are three examples of open-ended activities which allow students to take risks, to test their latest language hypotheses, and to proceed at their own rate. To improve the status of literacy in our society it is crucial that populations not well served be better served and that all students achieve to their potential. Large numbers of boys, large numbers of minority students, or a general increase in the number of children being labeled special education are indications of curriculum failure on this guideline.

2. Effective teachers of reading create classroom environments where children actively use reading and writing as tools for learning. Research shows that children tend to use strategies in the manner in which the strategies have been taught. Teachers can demonstrate the usefulness of reading and writing by offering opportunities during content area instruction for children to engage in meaningful reading and writing. Library research projects, the integration of reading and writing in the content areas, and classroom activities that engage students in using reading and writing as reading and writing are used outside of school meet this guideline. Reading and writing taught as isolated subjects violate this guideline.

3. Good language arts programs highlight reading and writing but encourage students to actively use speech, art, music, drama, and dance in their attempt to communicate and grow. Readers theater, art projects, plays, dioramas, and song writing should be an integral part of the reading program. Not only

should teachers provide opportunities for these experiences, but they should take time to discuss with the children how such activities highlight, add, or even change text interpretation and appreciation. Classrooms projects and student presentations involving a variety of media are signs that this guideline is being met.

4. Teachers should set up functional reading and writing environments. Children learn to read by reading and learn to write by writing. Teachers should make daily invitations to children to read and write and provide uninterrupted time for them to do so. Message boards, journals, learning logs, news reports, book sales, and the writing out of daily plans are but some of the techniques used by effective teachers of reading. Teacher-selected, rather than student-selected, topics for reading and writing violate this guideline as do curricular fragmentation and the teaching of content area subjects such that students can avoid, rather than actively engage in, reading. Reading and writing activities that have no intrinsic value -- that is, serve no function other than to provide seat work -- also violate this guideline.

5. Teachers should encourage children to utilize their higher level cognitive abilities by systematically planning instructional experiences which introduce and invite children to try a variety of reading comprehension strategies such as storying, visualizing, inferencing, summarizing, generalizing, and drawing conclusions based on intuition, the information in the text, and logic. Children should routinely be encouraged to relate what they already know to what they are reading. This means that teachers will spend less time having children complete workbooks and skill sheets and more time allowing children actively to use and apply their growing understandings. Literature groups in which children choose and critically talk about and defend their interpretation of the books they have read are but one instructional technique which teachers might employ in creatively meeting this guideline. Differentiating instruction in which some students do vocabulary study or are asked only literal level questions, and are not given the opportunity to think as other students are encouraged to think, violates this premise.

6. Choice is an integral part of the literacy process. Children should be permitted to choose reading materials, activities, and ways of demonstrating their understanding of the texts they have read. Reading skills and strategies should be presented as options rather than as rules which are to be universally applied under all reading conditions. Teachers should make invitations to read and write rather than to make reading and writing assignments. Teacher directed instruction in which all children in a classroom or reading group are required to make the same response indicates that this guideline is not being met.

7. Beginning reading instruction should provide children with many opportunities to interact in meaningful print contexts: listening to stories, participating in shared book experiences, making language experience stories and books, composing stories through play, enacting stories through drama, and reading and writing predictable books. If children do not have extensive book experiences prior to coming to school, teachers must begin by reading to children and by providing them with the book reading experiences they have missed. Good programs of beginning reading do not assume some children have not had meaningful encounters with print, but rather build from as well as extend what children already know about language. From the first day of school books and paper and pens should be in the hands of children rather than the teacher. Whole class workbook readiness activities, kindergarten and first grade classrooms where children are seated in desks studying rather than using language, plans to move the first grade curriculum to kindergarten, and high numbers of students being retained in kindergarten and first grade due to poor readiness scores are indicators that current school policies and practices need reexamination.

8. Research shows that language users learn best in a low-risk environment where they are permitted and encouraged to test hypotheses of interest to them. Experiences should be planned which allow children to take risks, make inferences, check their conclusions against the evidence at hand, and be wrong. Reading teachers should help children understand that predicting what will happen next in stories, jumping to conclusions, and confirming or disconfirming those hypotheses are effective and powerful reading strategies rather than errors. For the most part teachers should avoid questions that suggest right answers but rather ask questions that encourage a diversity of well-supported responses. Penalities for being wrong as well as an overemphasis on correctness, grades, and being right by either students or teachers is an indication that this guideline is not being met.

9. Effective teachers of reading understand that growth in literacy is marked by plateaus and peaks over time. When reading and writing are used as tools for learning, first draft efforts must be treated with respect and students not made to feel vulnerable. Teachers must value the future as well as the present and provide supportive opportunities for children to revisit promising first drafts and then move to some more final form. First draft reading and writing assignments handed in by children 'before recess,' on-the-spot corrections of oral reading miscues, and other teacher monitoring techniques which give students dysfunctional views of what it means to be a successful reader or writer violate this guideline.

10. Reading instruction should include a wide variety of materials and reading experiences. Teachers should maintain and use, as an integral part of the reading program at all grade levels, a well-stocked classroom library which includes poetry, newspapers and trade books, as well as content area books and magazines. Fiction and non-fiction materials should be selected on the basis of quality and student interest and represent a wide range of difficulty. Content area teachers should use multiple textbooks and trade books as they set up environments in which students work on self-selected topics within the units of study addressed at this grade level in their discipline. Children, in all classrooms, should have free and unlimited access to print materials. Student desks containing a variety of books, student folders which include a range of writing from poetry to research reports, and student projects and presentations which are diverse indicate that this guideline is being met.

11. Teachers should provide daily opportunities for children to share and discuss what they have been reading and writing. As part of this sharing time, teachers should help children come to value the reading strategies they already have as well as continually introduce and invite children to try new one. Research shows that both learning and language are social events. To this end, teachers and administrators should celebrate their own, others, and student authorship, read widely, write and read when their students write and read, and actively share what strategies they are using to solve literacy problems of interest to them. Author sharing times, peer tutoring activities, and collaborative student research projects are but some of the activities that teachers might institute in meeting this objective in their classroom.

12. Teachers should understand that how they teach is just as important as what they teach. This means that skills should be introduced as options that readers have when encountering unknown items in print, and that children be taught that choice as to which strategy to use under which condition is an integral part of what it means to be a strategic reader. To this end, good teachers of reading and writing encourage risk-taking in an effort to help children understand and value the linguistic resources they have at their own disposal. They provide demonstrations by reading and writing with their children. Long lines of children waiting for the teacher to answer a question prior to proceeding, unwillingness to take risks when reading or writing, and other student misconceptions about how to use reading and writing are indicative that mixed curricular messages are being given.

13. Effective programs of evaluation are multidimensional defining testing broadly as any situation that affords the

opportunity to make an improved instructional decision. In lieu of, or in addition to, standardized tests, evaluators directly observe important behaviors, attitudes and strategies that they associate with successful written language use, learning and teaching. Program decisions for students relative to placement (gifted and talented or special education) and promotion (either in terms of readiness to read in first grade or graduation from high school in twelfth grade) which are based on single test measures or weigh standardized test results over other data (teacher, parent, student judgment; classroom performance reports; etc.) violate this guideline. Similarly advancement policies in reading based on test performance alone, even when this test was specifically designed for the materials used, must be questioned.

14. Effective programs of evaluation in reading are curricularly focused and encourage teachers and pupils reflexively to engage in self-evaluation as they use each other as curricular informants. Effective administrators do not mandate evaluation criteria, but rather ask teachers to assume this professional responsibility and give them the freedom to do so in creative ways. Teachers, by the same token, provide children options in how they will demonstrate that they have grown as a result of their engagement in an experience involving reading. Merit pay attached to standardized achievement test score results are a blatant violation of this guideline, as are tracking and grouping practices which fail to provide some students as rich a learning environment as other students.

15. Effective administrators and school board members recognize teachers as learners and support their professional right to try to improve the status of literacy instruction. They do so by actively encouraging teachers to test their best language hypotheses about what constitutes effective literacy instruction. Teachers should be provided with inservice training and time off to attend professional meetings. Professional self development can be fostered though the creation and encouragement of teacher support groups. High rates of teacher burnout suggest that they have not been able to maintain key professional rights and responsibilities.

16. Effective administrators and school boards see teachers as the key resource for the revitalization of education. Effective administrators use teachers as curricular informants, respect teachers as capable and professional decision makers, confirm and legitimize teacher intuition, and consult with teachers on district and school issues. Lack of teacher requests to try innovative techniques and approaches to the teaching of reading and the presence of 'teacher proof' materials and central office skill check off lists are but some indices that this guideline needs to be

addressed.

17. Effective school policy relative to reading and language arts set directions but do not dictate which materials and programs will be used to teach reading. Effective school administrators organize district-wide curriculum committees and provide other forums for teacher input relative to what materials will be purchased and used. Research shows that often the most effective materials are those purposefully made or selected by the researcher or teacher for specific purposes given specific children. Good teachers plan a variety of activities which engage students and are geared to their needs and interests. District-wide dictates and central office skill check off lists based on particular reading series or tests suggest that this policy guideline is being violated. High utilization of school resource materials centers, budgets for teachers to order materials specifically for their classroom, and the active involvement of teachers as collaborators in what materials are to be available in the school are indices that this guideline is being met.

18. Effective administrators and school boards keep themselves informed and avoid auxiliary school programs such as 'time-on-task' and 'assertive discipline' which violate what is currently known about language and language learning. Effective administrators consult with district reading specialists and their teachers prior to adopting such programs in their school. Teacher complaints about how school policies and programs hinder rather than facilitate teaching and learning should be taken seriously and a reassessment of auxiliary programs be made as quickly as possible.

19. Effective programs of reading see parents as participants and partners in learning who are permitted options, choice, involvement and information about instructional alternatives available to students. Parents of children who become successful readers are active in their child's education. It is recommended that every teacher schedule a parent's day in which the goals, objectives, methods and rationale being using to teach reading are fully explained to parents. Parent conferences should begin with the probe, "What things do you know about your child that would help me be a better teacher this year?" Frequent parent requests that their child be placed with specific teachers, parent involvement in classrooms (typing student manuscripts, making blank books, etc), and high parent attendance at school functions are indices that this guideline is being met.

20. Effective programs of change understand that curriculum and curriculum development takes time and is enhanced by partnership. Such programs facilitate and encourage

collaboration between educators in college and educators in classrooms as they actively engage in the pursuit of practical theory. Effective administrators take every opportunity to encourage teacher, student, parent, and university collaboration. School and university joint sponsored research projects which extend over time and community programs such as Literacy Day, Reading at the Mall, Young Authors Conference, and the like, are signs that this guideline is being practiced. Town and gown splits as well as poor relationships between the reading curriculum coordinator and reading faculty at the local college or university are signs that existing policies and practices need to be reexamined.

21. Teachers, students, parents, administrators, university personnel and school board members should do everything possible to portray themselves as a supportive and active community of language learners. They do this by using reading to learn about reading and by collaboratively building policies relative to reading that highlight and facilitate learning and growth.

NOTES

1. See, for example:

Anderson, R. C., Hiebert, E. H., Scott, J. A., & Wilkinson, I. A. G. (1985). Becoming a nation of readers. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Boyer, E. L. (1984). High school: A report on secondary education in America. New York: Harper.

Cash, J. (Host). (1984). Can't read, can't write (videotape). New York: CBS Broadcasting.

Goodlad, J. L. (1984). A place called school: Prospect for the future. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.

2. Durkin, D. (1978-79). What classroom observations reveal about reading comprehension instruction. Reading Research Quarterly, 14, 481-533.

See also:

Allington, R. (1984). Content coverage and contextual reading in reading groups. Journal of Reading Behavior, 16, 85-96.

Gambrell, L. B. (1984). How much time do children spend reading during teacher-directed reading instruction? In J. A. Niles & L. A. Harris (Eds.), Changing perspectives on research in reading/language processing and instruction (34th Yearbook of NRC). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

Neilsen, A. R., Rennie, B. J., & Connell, A. M. (1982). Allocation of instructional time to reading comprehension and study skills in intermediate grade social studies classrooms. In J. A. Niles & L. A. Harris (Eds.), New inquiries in reading research and instruction (32nd Yearbook of NRC). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

Smith, F. R., & Feathers, K. M. (1983). Teacher and student perceptions of content area reading. Journal of Reading, 26, 348-354.

3. See Note 1. Also see:

Psacharopoulos, G. (1981). Return to education: An updated international comparison. Comparative Education, 17, 321-341.

Chall, J. S. (1983). Literacy: Trends and explanations.

Educational Researcher, 12, 3-8.

Eckland, B. K. (1982). College entrance examination trends. In G. R. Austin & H. Garber (Eds.), *The rise and fall of national test scores* (pp. 9-34). New York: Academic Press.

Harnischfeger, A., & Wiley, D. E. (1975). *Achievement test score decline: Do we need to worry?* Chicago, IL: CEMREL.

Kozol, J. (1985). *Illiterate America*. New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday.

Ravitch, D. (1985). *The schools we deserve: Reflections on the educational crises of our time*. New York: Basic Books.

Cross cultural comparisons inevitably show that other countries do better. International comparisons are difficult to interpret as often only a small portion of the population is in school in these countries and this elite group is often compared to all students in the U.S. at a particular age. See, for example:

Thorndike, R. L. (1973). *Reading comprehension education in fifteen countries: An empirical study*. New York: Wiley.

Stevenson, H. W. (1984). Making the grade: School achievement in Japan, Taiwan, and the United States. *Annual Report*. Stanford, CA: Center for Advanced Study in the Behavioral Sciences.

4. DeFord, D. (1981). Literacy: Reading, writing and other essentials. *Language Arts*, 58, 652-658.

5. This same phenomenon has been reported by others. See:

Barr, B. (1974-75). The effect of instruction on pupil reading strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 10, 555-582.

DeLawter, J. (1970). *Oral reading errors of second grade children exposed to two different reading approaches*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Franklin, B. (1984). *A naturalistic study of literacy in bilingual classrooms*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Harste, J. C. (1980). Reading and writing: The instructional connection (videotape). In D. J. Strickler (Director & Producer), *Reading comprehension: An instructional videotape series*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Harste, J. C., & Burke, C. L. (1977). A new hypothesis for reading teacher education research: Both the teaching and learning of reading are theoretically based. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Reading: Research, theory and practice* (26th Yearbook of NRC). Rochester, NY: National Reading Conference.

Rhodes, L. K. (1978). *The interaction of beginning readers' strategies and tests reflecting alternate models of predictability*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Rhodes, L. K. (1979). Comprehension and predictability: An analysis of beginning reading materials. In J. C. Harste & R. F. Carey (Eds.), *New perspectives in comprehension* (Monographs in Language and Reading Studies). Bloomington, IN: School of Education Publications.

6. For further explanation of these instructional strategies, see:

Buchanan, E. (Ed.). (1980). *For the love of reading*. Winnipeg: Whole Language Consultants, Ltd.

Cochrane, O, Cochrane, D., Scalena, S., & Buchanan, E. (1984). *Reading, writing, and caring*. Winnipeg: Whole Language Consultants.

McCracken, R., & McCracken, M. (1979). *Reading, writing, and language*. Winnipeg: Pegius Publishers Ltd.

Martin, B. & Brogan, P. (1971). *Teacher's guide to instant readers*. New York: Holt.

Rhodes, L. K. (1981). I can read! Predictable books as resources for reading and writing instruction. *Reading Teacher*, 34, 511-529.

Milz, V. (1980). The comprehension-centered classroom: Setting it up and making it work. In D. J. Strickler & B. P. Farr (Eds.), *Reading comprehension: Resource guide*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

7. While Jason's writing sample makes him appear as if he is developmentally further along than the writing in the phonics and skills classroom, this phenomenon has been reported before, and has been found not to be evidence of initial differences between groups. Kenneth Goodman, for example, has repeatedly reported that under uninterrupted story reading conditions, students who teachers thought not able to read suddenly looked like readers. For reports on how a supportive context affects performance in reading and writing see:

Goodman, K. S. (1965). A linguistic study of cues and miscues in reading. *Elementary English*, 42, 639-643.

Harste, J. C., & Carey, R. F. (1984). Classrooms, constraints, and the language process. In J. Flood (Ed.), *Promoting reading comprehension.* Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Jenkins, P. W. (1980). *The language learning of a language delayed child: A phenomenological study*. Unpublished dissertation, University of Missouri, Columbia.

Stephens, D., & Harste, J. C. (1985). Accessing the potential of the learner: Toward an understanding of the complexity of context. *Journal of Special Education*, 20, 67-72.

8. The person who really makes this point is Martha King. See:

King, M. (1985). The natural curriculum (videotape). In E. Juerwicz (Producer & Director) & J. Harste (Developer & Host), *Read better, write better, reason better: The authoring cycl[illegible].* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

9. Although this point is made by several researchers, see particularly:

Rowe, D. W. (1985a). The big picture: A quantitative meta-analysis of reading comprehension research. In A. Crismore (Ed.), *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984.* Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

9a. Peter Board is the person that introduced the notion of 'an instructionally dependent attitude.' See:

Board, P. (1981). *Valuing the learner in the classroom: Things are not what they seem to be* (Occassional Paper). Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona, Program for Language and Literacy.

10. Beaugrande, R. de. (1980). *Text, discourse, and process.* Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Beaugrande, R. de. (1981). Design criteria for process models of reading. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 16, 261-315.

Beaugrande, R. de. & Dressler, W. (1981). *Introduction to text linguistics*. New York: Longman.

Bruce, B. (1979). *A social interaction model of reading* (BBN Report No. 4238). Champaign, IL: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading.

Dillon, G. L. (1978). *Language processing and the reading of literature: Toward a model of comprehension*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Dijk, T. A. van. (1976). Pragmatics of language and literature. Amsterdam: North Holland Publishing.

Gollasch, F. V. (Ed.). (1982a). Language and literacy: The selected writings of Kenneth S. Goodman (Volume 1: Process, Theory, Research). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Gollasch, F. V. (Ed.). (1982b). Language and literacy: The selected writings of Kenneth S. Goodman (Volume 2: Reading, Language, and the Classroom Teacher). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). Explorations in the functions of language. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). Forward. In P. Mackey, & P. Schaub (Eds.), Breakthrough to literacy. Glendale, CA: Bowmar.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1974). Language and social man. London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). Language as social semiotic. London: Edward Arnold.

Holdaway, D. (1979). The foundations of literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Mischler, E. G.; (1979). Meaning in context: Is there any other kind? Harvard Educational Review, 49, 1-19.

Shuy, R. W. (1979). On the relevance of recent developments in sociolinguistics to the study of language, learning, and early education. In O. Garcia & M. King (Eds.), Language, children, and society. Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Smith, F. (1978). Understanding reading. New York: Holt.

11. See:

Anderson, R. C., Spiro, R. J., & Montague, W. E. (1977). Schooling and the acquisition of knowledge. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bussie, A. M. (1982). 'Burn it at the casket' Research, reading instruction, and children's learning of the first R. Phi Delta Kappan, 60, 237-241.

Brown, A. L. (1982). Learning how to learn from reading. In J. Langer & M. Smith-Burke (Eds.), Reader meets author: Bridging the gap: A psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspective. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Brown, A. L. (1977). *Knowing when, where, and how to remember: A problem of metacognition* (Technical Report 47). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading.

Brown, A. L. (1981). Metacognitive development and reading. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Brown, A. L., & Smiley, S. S. (1977). Rating the importance of structural units of prose passage: A problem of metacognitive development. *Child Development*, 48, 1-8.

Dijk, T. van. (1979). *Macro-structures*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 1979.

Dijk, T. van. (1977). Semantic macro-structures and knowledge frames in discourse comprehension. In M. A. Just & P. A. Carpenter (Eds.), *Cognitive processes in comprehension*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Gollasch (1982a) and (1982b), *op*. *cit*.

Pearson, P. D., (Ed.). (1984). *Handbook of reading research*. New York: Longman.

Sherman, B. (1979). *Reading for meaning*. Learning, 60, 41-44.

Spiro, R. J., Bruce, B. C., & Brewer, W. F. (Eds.) (1980). *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Winograd, P. N., & Johnston, P. (1982). Comprehension monitoring and the error detection paradigm. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 14, 61-76.

Winograd, P. N. (1983). *Strategic difficulties in summarizing texts* (Technical Report 153). Urbana, IL: University of Illinois, Center for the Study of Reading.

Winograd, P. N., Hare, V. C., Garner, R., Alexander, P. A., & Haynes, J. (1984). *When lookbacks fail*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

12. See Note 11, plus:

Smith (1978), *op*. *cit*.

Gollasch (1982a) (1982b), *op*. *cit*.

13. See Note 11.

Goodman, K. S. (1984). Unity in reading. In A. C. Purves & O. Niles (Eds.), Becoming readers in a complex society (Part 1: 83rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Iser, W. (1978). The act of reading: A theory of aesthetic response. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins Press.

14. This definition was taken from a Michigan Reading Association Position Paper. Although I define reading somewhat differently, given my review of research, this definition best reflects the dominant definition of reading among researchers today. See:

Harste, J. C. (1985a). Portrait of a new paradigm: Reading Comprehension Research. In A. Crismore, Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984 (Final Report USDE-C-300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Seminoff, N., Wixson, K. K., & Peters, C. W. (1984). Reading redefined: A Michigan reading association position paper. Michigan Reading Journal, 17, 4-7.

15. Kirsch, I., & Guthrie, J. T. (1985). Adult reading practices for work and leisure. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, St. Petersburg.

Smith, F. (1980), op. cit.

15a. 'Individualized Instruction' has come to be operationalized as 'Isolated Instruction' in way too many classrooms. This is unfortunate. Open-entry and open-ended activities like literature study and journal writing are 'individualized,' yet social, in the sense that children can share and thus learn from one another. I am not opposed to 'individualized instruction' so much as I am opposed to 'isolated instruction.'

16. See Note 11.

For a review, see:

Rowe, D. W. (1985a), op. cit.

Rowe, D. W. (1985b). A guided tour of the landscapes: Research on reading comprehension instruction. In A. Crismore (Ed.), Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984 (Final Report USDE-C-300-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

17. See:

Smith, F. (1978), op. cit.

Smith, F. (1982). Writing and the writer. New York: Holt.

Smith, F. (1984). Essays in literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann. (See particularly, The language arts and the learner's mind and Demonstrations, engagement, and sensitivity.)

As this concepts relates to young children see:

Baghban, M. (1984). Our daughter learns to read and write: A case study from birth to three. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Bissex, G. (1980). Gnys at wrk: A child learns to write and read. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1984). Language stories and literacy lessons. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Heath, S. B. (1983). Ways with words. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Jaggar, A., & Smith-Burke, M. T. (1985). Observing the language learner. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Ferreiro, E., & Teberosky, A. (1982). Literacy before schooling (Trans. by K. Goodman Castros). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Goodman, K. S., & Goodman, Y. M. (1979). Learning to read is natural. In L. B. Resnick & P. A. Weaver (Eds.), Theory and practice of early reading (Volume 2). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Meek, M. (1982). Learning to read. London: Bodley Head.

Linfors, J. W. (1980). Children's language and learning. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Taylor, D. (1983). Family literacy: Young children learning to read and write. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Teale, W. H. (1978). What studies of early readers tell us. Language Arts, 55, 922-932.

Teale, W. H. (1982). Toward a theory of how children learn to read and write naturally. Language Arts, 59, 555-570.

Wells, G. (1981). Learning through interaction: The study of language development (Volume 1: Language at Home and at School). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wells, G., Barnes, S., & Wells, J. (1984). Linguistic influences on educational attainment (Final Report). Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

18. See Note 11. Also see:

Downing, J. (1970). Children's concepts of language in learning to read. Educational Researcher, 12, 106-112.

Downing, J. (1979). Cognitive clarity and linguistic awareness. Paper presented at the International Seminar on Linguistic Awareness and Learning to Read, University of Victoria, Canada.

Goodman, Y. M., Burke, C. A., & Sherman, B. (1980). Strategies in reading: Focus on comprehension. New York: Holt.

Mattingly, I. G. (1972). Reading, the linguistic process, and linguistic awareness. In J. F. Kavanagh & I. G. Mattingly (Eds.), Language by ear and by eye: The relationship between speech and reading. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Mattingly, I. G. (1979). Reading, linguistic awareness, and language acquisition. Paper presented at the International Seminar on Linguistic Awareness and Learning to Read, University of Victoria, Canada.

Yaden, D., & Templeton, S. (Eds.). (1985). Metalinguistic awareness and beginning literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

19. Harste, J. C., et al. (1984), op. cit.

20. See: Farr, R., & Fay, L. (1982). Reading trend data in the United States: A mandate for caveats and caution. In G. R. Austin & H. Garber (Eds.), The rise and fall of national test scores. New York: Academic Press.

Goodman, K. S. (1983). A profession at risk or why everyone dumps on teachers. Slate Newsletter, 10:15

Stitch, T. (1985). Avoid 'quick-fix' solutions to illiteracy. The Wall Street Journal, August 31, Education Supplement, 2.

21. Farr, R., Fay, L., & Negley, H. H. (1978). Reading achievement in Indiana (1944-45 and 1976): Then and now. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education.

22. Similar trends have been reported elsewhere. See:

Hiebert, E. H., & Sawyer, C. C. (1984). Young children's concurrent abilities in reading and spelling. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Mason, J. M. (1980). When do children begin to read: An exploration of children's letter and word recognition competencies. Reading Research Quarterly, 15, 203-207.

23. Stitch, T. (1983). Literacy in non-school settings. Symposium presentation at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, Austin.

24. Tom Stitch argues that Jonathan Kozol's 60 million illiterate Americans, who are reading between 5th and 8th grade level, are not illiterate at all, but rather "under educated." This is a quite different problem and calls for a quite different solution than adult literacy programs which focus on phonics as a key to solving illiteracy in America. See:

Stitch, T. (1985), op. cit.

25. Cash, J. (1983), op. cit.

The 25 million figure quoted is a projected figure from a Texas study that asked successful middle class Americans how they used reading and writing to function in their work and lives. Using what this sample gave as responses, a larger population was sampled and judged as to whether or not they used reading and writing as the criterion group. 22 million were projected as not having the ability to use reading and writing as the criterion group used reading and writing. Despite the theoretical problems with this study and the fact that several scholars have severely critiqued this study, it continues to be quoted. Roger Farr asked the federal government for a copy of the original report and maintains that there is not enough data presented to be able to make sense out of study (Personal Communications). The 60 or 70 million figure quoted refers to Americans reading at the 6th grade level (see Stitch [1985] op. cit.) and are not technically illiterate, but rather under-educated.

26. See Notes 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25. Also see:

National Assessment of Educational Progress. (1985). The reading report card: Progress toward excellence in our schools: Trends in reading over four national assessments, 1971-1984. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

This report says, and I quote:

"The average reading proficiency levels of 9-, 13-, and

17-year-olds in each of four assessments provide the best index of national trends in reading achievement between 1971 and 1984....Nine-Year-Olds -- During the past 13 years, the reading proficiency of 9-year-old students has improved significantly....Thirteen-Year-Olds -- Thirteen-year-olds too are reading significantly better than they were in 1971, but this improvement has not been as dramatic across assessments....Seventeen-Year-Olds -- Trends in achievement for 17-year-olds differ markedly from those for the other two age groups. Throughout the 1970s, the reading proficiency level of the 17-year-olds was remarkedly constant, but this was followed by a significant improvement between 1980 and 1984 (pp. 9-10)."

27. See Snyder, this volume.

28. Chicago Mastery Learning. (1980). Chicago: Chicago Public Schools.

29. Anderson, et al. (1985), op. cit.

30. Beaugrande, R. de. (1985). The semiotics of text. Course given at the International Summer Institute of Semiotic and Structural Studies, Indiana University, Bloomington.

31. L. Mikulecky argues on the basis of his research studying literacy in the workplace that school literacy tasks are quite different from job literacy tasks. Harste makes a similar argument for early literacy learning and beginning reading and writing programs. See:

Mikulecky, L. J. (1981). Job literacy: The relationship between school preparation and workplace ability (Final Report NIE-G-79-0168). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Harste, J. C., & Mikulecky, L. J. (1984). The context of literacy in our society. In A. C. Purves and O. Niles (Eds.), Becoming readers in a complex society (Part 1: 83rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

See also:

Dyson, A. H. (1984). Learning to write/learning to do school: Emergent writers interpretations of school literacy tasks. Research in the Teaching of English, 10, 233-264.

Lee Odell has made a similar case for writing, arguing that writing instruction is often quite different than real writing. See:

Odell, L. (1980)., Business writing: Observations and implications for teaching composition. Theory into Practice, 19, 225-232.

32. For a description of some of the characteristics of recent research in reading see:

Snyder, S. (1985). Teachers as explorers: Teacher-researchers and present research needs. In A. Crismore, *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984* (Final Report USDE-C-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

This trend also holds for language research more generally. See:

Mischler, E. G. (1979), *op. cit*.

33. For a review of conceptual trends in reading comprehension research see:

Harste, J. C. (1985a), *op. cit*.

34. See Note 33.

35. Burke, C. L. (1980). A comprehension-centered reading curriculum (videotape). In D. J. Strickler (Producer & Developer), *Reading comprehension: An instructional television series*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

36. This argument was initially made quite eloquently by Kenneth S. Goodman. See:

Goodman, K. S. (1979). Bridging the gaps in reading: Respect and communication. In J. C. Harste & R. F. Carey (Eds.), *New perspectives on comprehension* (Monographs in Language and Reading Studies). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, School of Education Publications.

37. My impression is that the profession has moved from experimental research to ethnography in a search for a new research paradigm. More recently the shortcomings of an ethnographic paradigm have also been noted. The new paradigm which seems to be evolving is what I would call collaborative research. To trace this move see:

Edelsky, C., et al. (1984). *A language deficit theory for the 80's: CALP, BICS, and Semilingualism* (mimeographed). Tempe, AZ: Arizona State University, Elementary Education.

Erickson, F. (1984). School literacy, reasoning, and civility: An anthropologist's perspective. *Review of Educational Research*, 54, 525-546.

Green, J., & Bloome, D. (1983). Ethnography and reading: Issues, approaches, criteria, and findings. In J. Niles & L. Harris (Eds.), New inquires in reading research and reading instruction (32nd Yearbook of NRC). Rochester, NH: National Reading Conference.

Mischler, E. G. (1979), op. cit.

Carey, R. F. (1980). Empirical vrs. naturalistic research? Reading Research Quarterly, 5, 412-415.

Magoon, A. J. (1977). Constructivist approach to educational research. Review of Educational Research, 47, 657-693.

Short, K. (1985). Literacy as a collaborative experience. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Smith, D. M. (1984). Premises underlying a new methodology for educational research. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of LARS, New York University, New York.

Stephens, D. (1985). Toward a reconception of educational inquiry. Forum, 2, 1-11.

38. There is a growing group of research studies and projects that move in this direction. For a complete listing see Note 152.

39. Shanklin, N. (1985). (Personal Communications.)

Altwerger, B. (1985). (Personal Communications.)

40. One of these projects became the focus of a videotape series for use with preservice and inservice teacher education. See:

Harste, J. C. (Developer & Host), & Juerwicz, E. (Producer & Director). (1985). The authoring cycle: Read better, write better, reason better (videotape series). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Shanklin, N., & Rhodes, L. (1985). The Denver Project. Speech given at the CELT Rejuvenation Conference, Bloomington, IN.

Shanklin, N., & Vacca, R. (1985). Shifts in teacher beliefs about writing and writing instruction. Speech given at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, St. Petersburg.

Smith, K., Edelsky, C., Flores, B., & Peterson, R. (1985). The Arizona Project. Presentation given at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, New Orleans.

41. Stephens, D. (in process). The integration of reading and

writing: A collaborative study of change in a special education classroom. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN.

42. Pierce, V. L. (1984). *Bridging the gap between language research/theory and practice: A case study*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Texas Womans University.

Clyde, J. A. (in process). *A collaborative venture: Exploring the socio-psycholinguistic nature of literacy*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Pinnell, G. S. (1985). *The Ohio Early Literacy Project.* Presentation given at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, New Orleans.

43. Short, K. (1985), *op*. *cit*.

44. Altwerger, B., & Resta, V. (1985). *The Albuquerque Project.* Speech given at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, New Orleans.

Au, K. H. (1980). *A test of the social organizational hypothesis relationship between participation structures and learning to read*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, Urbana, IL.

Au, K. H., & Mason, J. M. (1981). Social organizational factors in learning to read: The balance of rights hypothesis. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 17, 356-397.

Hansen, J., & Graves, D. (1984). *Implementing a process approach to reading and writing in classrooms* (audiotape). Speech given at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans.

Tierney, R. J., Pearson, P. D., & Tucker, D. (1984). *The Metcaff project*. Presentation given at the Annual CORR Conference, Anaheim.

Smith-Burke, M. T. *The STAR project*. (Personal communications).

45. For a listing of the dominant hypotheses that researchers are testing in the name of reading, see:

Harste, J. C., et al. (1985). Appendix B: Hypotheses researchers test in the name of reading comprehension. In A. Crismore, *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-84* (Final Report USDE-C-300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

46. Typically this lag is said to be 15 years. John Pollach

reported that it took 10 years before psycholinguistic research in reading appeared in reading methods textbooks. See:

Pollach, J. (1979). Psycholinguistic research: Fifteen years later (mimeographed). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, Houston.

47. This trend is not true, from what I can tell, in Canada, Australia, and England. These countries have a somewhat different educational history. In the United States federal support for reading education and its demand for accountability have had the effect of institutionalizing a subskill approach to reading. Essentially a subskill model makes accountability easy. While the federal government never meant to take a theoretical position on how reading should be taught, policy guidelines for accountability had this effect.

    It is equally interesting to note that basal reading series in Canada and Australia look quite different from basal reading series in the United States. U. S. basals are very closely aligned with a subskills approach to reading instruction. Canadian and Australian basals tend to be more closely aligned with a whole language approach. Despite that fact that the same publishing companies exist in one or more countries, Canadian basals are not available in the U. S., and are, in fact, almost impossible to get. In an effort to sensitize teachers to how the socio-historical context of the times affects education, Bradley Walker have developed a series of strategy lessons for teacher education in which basal selections from various countries are compared. See:

    Walker, B. (1985). Internationalizing teacher education in the language arts: Strategy lessons. In A. Ochoa (Ed.), Internationalizing teacher education project. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Social Studies Education.

48. For a comparison between a schema-theoretic view of reading and a subskills view, see:

    Adams, M. J., & Collins. A. (1978). A schema-theoretic view of reading. In R. J. Spiro, B. C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), Theoretical issues in reading comprehension. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

49. Jeanne Chall posed these two alternatives as the only alternatives to the teaching of reading that existed in 1967. Although this is not true today, her discussion lays out quite clearly what the key differences are between these two subskill approaches to teaching reading. See:

    Chall, J. (1967). Learning to read: The great debate. New York: McGraw Hill.

50. Children at very young ages obviously learn that print is meaningful. Once they have the expectation that print will make sense, they begin to test all sorts of hypotheses relative to reading. While there are patterns to the hypotheses they test, no tight order has been found. See early language research cited in Note 17.

51. The profession used to believe that comprehension was something language learners worked towards, rather than started from. More recently, comprehension has come to be seen as a setting in which language learning takes place. See:

Adams, M. J., & Collins, A. (1978), *op. cit*.

Harste, J. C., & Carey, R. F. (1979). Comprehension as setting. In J. C. Harste & R. F. Carey (Eds.), *New perspectives in comprehension* (Monographs in Language and Reading Studies). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, School of Education Publications.

Neisser, U. (1976). *Cognition and reality*. San Francisco, CA: Freeman.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977). Toward an interactive model of reading. In S. Dornie (Ed.), *Attention and performance* (Volume VI). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rumelhart, D. E., & Ortony, A. (1977). The representation of knowledge in memory. In R. C. Anderson, R. J. Spiro, & W. E. Montague (Eds.), *Schooling and the acquisition of knowledge*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Smith, F. (1980). Understanding reading comprehension (videotape). In D. J. Strickler (Producer & Director), *Reading comprehension: An instructional videotape series*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Spiro, R. J. (1977). Remembering information from text: The state of schema approach. In R. C. Anderson, R. J. Spiro, & W. E. Montague (Eds.), *Schooling and the acquisition of knowledge*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Spiro, R. J., Bruce, B. C., & Brewer, W. F. (1980), *op. cit*.

52. A more complete history is available in the following documents:

Goodman, K. S., Weaver, C., Stevenson, M. (1985). *Basal readers: A call for action*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English, Reading Commission.

Mathews, M. M. (1966). *Teaching to read, historically considered*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Smith, N. B. (1965). American reading instruction. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Stevenson, J. A. (Ed.). (1985). William S. Gray: Teacher, scholar, leader. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

53. The first person to state it this bluntly was Robert Carey, though the charge was more implicitedly made prior to Carey's statement. See:

Adams, M. J., & Collins, A. (1978), op. cit.

Carey, R., F. (1982). Meaning in context: The semiotics of literacy (mimeographed). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, Chicago.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977), op. cit.

54. Kenneth Goodman was probably the first person to seriously question a subskills approach. His article is a classic in the literature. See original or volume in which it has been reprinted:

Goodman, K. S. (1967). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. Journal of the Reading Specialist, 4, 126-135.

Gollasch, F. (1982a), op. cit.

55. Robert Carey reported that children in the state of Connecticut scored higher on reading comprehension subsections of the state's competency examination than they did on several subskill areas. He also reported that rather than question the test, or the theory of reading that underlied it, the state decided to remediate children in subskill areas they did not do well on. See:

Carey, R. F. (1985). Measurement in reading. Presentation given at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference, St. Petersburg.

56. The classic studies in this instance are ones by Kintsch & van Dijk. See:

Kintsch, W., & Dijk, T. A. van. (1978). Toward a model of text comprehension and production. Psychological Review, 85, 363-394.

Kintsch, W. (1977). On comprehending stories. In M. A. Just & P. A. Carpenter (Eds.), Cognitive processes in comprehension. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Kintsch, W. (1972). Notes on the structure of semantic memory. In E. Tulving & W. Donaldson (Eds.), Organization in memory. New York: Academic Press.

Kintsch, W. (1974). The representation of meaning in memory. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Kintsch, W. (1972). Storage of complex information in memory: Some implications of the speed with which inferences can be made. Journal of Experimental Psychology, 94, 25-32.

Kintsch, W., & Greene, E. (1978). The role of culture-specific schemata in the comprehension and recall of stories. Discourse Processes, 1, 1-13.

Kintsch, W., & Keenan, J. (1973). Reading rate and retention as a function of the number of propositions in the base structure of sentences. Cognitive Psychology, 5, 257-274.

Kintsch, W., Mandell, T., & Kozminsky, E. (1977). Summarizing scrambled stories. Memory & Cognition, 5, 547-552.

Kintsch, W., Kozminsky, E., Streby, W. J., McKoon, G., & Keenan, J. M. (1975). Comprehension and recall of text as a function of content variables. Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 14, 196-214.

57. See Kirsch, I., & Guthrie, J, op. cit.

58. For a review see: Harste, J. C. (1985a), op. cit.

59. For a review of various reader habits, see:

Harste, J. C., & Mikulecky, L. (1985), op. cit.

60. Donald Graves, in interviewing professional writers as part of a study funded by the Ford Foundation, reports that not one writer said that they learned to write in school. See:

Graves, D. (1985). Taking ownership (videotape). In J. C. Harste (Developer & Host) & E. Juerwicz (Producer & Director), The authoring cycle: Read better, write better, reason better. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

For status of writing instruction in the United States, see:

Applebee, A., Lehr, F., & Austin, A. (1981). A study of writing in the secondary school. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Applebee, A. Writing and learning in school settings. In M. Nystrand (Ed.), What writers know: Studies in the psychology of writing. New York: Academic Press.

Graves, D. (1972), op. cit.

For a review of status reports, see:

Shanklin, N. L. (1981). Relating reading and writing: Development of a transactional theory of the writing process (Monographs in Language and Reading Studies). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, School of Education Publications.

61. Researchers have begun to study what strategies proficient readers use to comprehend text under various conditions. What is surprising about this research is how few strategies involve text or text based factors such as finding main ideas, mapping major and minor text propositions, inferences from text-based propositions, and the like, and how many involve using background of experience as a metaphor or analogy, using other texts read as an interpretive frame, visual imagery, and storying. See:

Smith, S. L. (1982). Learning strategies of mature college learners. Journal of Reading, 26, 5-12.

Sternglass, M., & Smith, S. L. (1984). Retrospective accounts of language and learning processes (Grant-in-aid Final Report). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Research and Graduate Development.

I have had graduate students keep a reflective journal on what strategies they used in making sense of Umberto Eco's 1983 novel, The name of the rose (Harcourt Brace). Several graduate student papers have been written analyzing portions of this data. These data suggest that the stance that the reader took in approaching the book strongly affected the kinds and nature of the strategies used. I will be pulling this data into a final report during an upcoming sabbatical leave.

62. For a theoretical discussion, see:

Scibior, O. (1984). Transactional processes in literacy learning: Toward a reconsideration of the concept 'strategy.' Forum, 1, 3-26.

Also see: Harste, J. C. (1985a), op. cit.

63. See:

Gollasch, F. (1982a), op. cit.

Gollasch, F. (1982b), op. cit.

Frank, S. (1978), op. cit.

64. This phrase refers to persons who can read but rarely do.

65. Goodman, K. S., Weaver, C., & Stevenson, M. (1985), op. cit.

65a. Anderson, R.C., et al. (1985), op. cit.

66. LaBerge, D., & Samuels, S. J. (1976). Toward a theory of automatic information processing in reading. In H. Singer & R. B. Rudell (Eds.), Theoretical models and processes of reading. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

67. Ibid.

68. See:

Stevenson, J. A. (1985), op. cit.

69. Anderson, R. C. (1978). Presentation given at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago.

70. L. Fielding, Paul Wilson, and Richard Anderson recently reported that the number of books read at home correlated the highest of all factors he and his colleagues studied with reading achievement and effective reading programs. In light of this finding, reports on the lack of opportunity for uninterrupted book reading in classrooms is particularly problematic. Several studies report that low reading groups have less attention focused on meaning and comprehension than do upper reading groups. Others report that weaker students do less reading than better students. Researchers studying content area reading report that books do not play a central role in most classrooms. See Note 2, plus:

Allington, R. (1980). Poor readers don't get to read much in reading groups. Language Arts, 57, 872-876.

Allington, R. Teacher interruption behaviors during primary-grade oral reading. Journal of Educational Psychology, 72, 371-377.

Fielding, L. G., Wilson P. T., & Anderson, R. C. (in press). A new focus on free reading: The role of trade books in reading instruction. In T. Raphael & R. Reynolds (Eds.), Contexts of literacy. New York: Longman.

71. Baghban, M. (1984), op. cit.

Clark, M. M. (1976). Young fluent readers. London: Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1982). Observing young readers: Selected papers. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Doake, D. (1983). Book experience and emergent reading behavior. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Victoria, Canada.

Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1984), op. cit.

Holdaway, D. (1979), op. cit.

Meek, M. S. (1981), op. cit.

72. Hunt, R. A. (1983). Teaching Clever Hans to write: Whole language in freshman composition. Paper given at the Penn State Conference in Rhetoric and Composition, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

73. Sampson, M., & White, J. (1984). The effect of print setting on comprehension and strategy utilization of second-grade students. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference.

74. Ravitch, D. (1985), op. cit.

75. Dorothy Watson has a discussion on videotape with a group of sixth graders on what kinds of print they expect in a variety of materials. Children, this instance demonstrates, have very definite schema for basal readers and their workbooks. See:

Watson, D. (1980). Strategies for a comprehension-centered reading program (videotape). In D. J. Strickler (Director & Producer), Reading comprehension: An instructional videotape series. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

76. That classroom language operates quite differently from how language operates in non-school setting has been clearly documented. See:

Edwards, A. D., & Furlong, V. J. (1979). The language of teaching. London: Heinemann.

Hymes, D. H. (1967). Models of interaction of language and social setting. Journal of Social Issues, 23, 34-98. (Also in J. J. Gumperz & D. H. Hymes (Eds.). (1972). Directions in sociolinguistics. New York: Holt.

Sinclair, J. & Coulthard, M. (1975). Toward an analysis of discourse: The language of teachers and pupils. London: Oxford University Press.

That this need not necessarily be the case, see:

Barnes, D. (1976). From communication to curriculum. New York: Penguin.

Siegel, M. (1980). *A comparison across two classrooms: Discourse processing from the perspective of speech act theory* (mimeographed). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference.

Sutton, C. (1981). *Communication in the classroom: A guide for subject teachers on the more effective use of reading, writing, and talk*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Shirley Brice Heath recently completed an ethnohistory of literacy in the United States. By examining the flyers, newspapers, and letters of our founding fathers, she argues that literacy skills were not high. Literacy was, however, functional in the sense that almost all of the population freely expressed themselves in writing. Literacy only became equated with control of the conventions of spelling and grammar when the schools took over the task of teaching literacy to the children of our founders. See:

Heath, S. B. (1981). Toward an ethnohistory of writing in American education. In W. Whiteman (Ed.), *Variation in writing: Functional and linguistic cultural differences (Volume 1)*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

77. Combs, A. (1969). *On becoming* (ASCD Yearbook). Chicago, IL: Chicago University Press.

78. See: Mitchell-Pierce, K. (1985). *From transaction to curriculum: Toward a practical theory of curriculum*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

79. This criticism was first made by Dorothy Watson. See, however:

    Harste, J. C. (1985b). Excellence: Multiple realities. In B. Altwerger & G. S. Pinnell, *The politics of literacy*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

80. Anderson, R. C., et al. (1985), *op*. *cit*.

81. Deborah Rowe shows that when criterion measures match instructional treatment conditions, gain scores tend to be significantly higher than when this is not the case. While this is the case for subskill studies, the trend holds at all levels. See:

    Rowe, D. W. (1985a), *op. cit*.

82. A recent case in point is Anderson, et al. (1985), *op*. *cit*. Whole programs of research studying the cue systems of reading are ignored. See:

    Allen, P. D., & Watson, D. J. (Eds.). (1976). *Findings of* research in miscue analysis: Classroom implications. Urbana, IL: Clearinghouse on Reading and Communication Skills, National Council of Teachers of English.

83. Jenkins, P. W. (1980), op. cit.

Rhodes, L. K. (1982), op. cit.

Stephens, D. (1985), op. cit.

Stephens, D., & Harste, J. C. (1985), op. cit.

84. Meek, M. (1984). Achieving Literacy. London: Bodley Head.

85. According to Anderson, et al. (1985) op. cit., "There are essentially two approaches to phonics instruction -- explicit phonics and implicit phonics....In explicit phonics instruction, the sounds associated with letters are identified in isolation and then "blended" together to form words....In implicit phonics instruction, the sound associated with a letter is never supposed to be pronounced in isolation. Instead, in an implicit program the teacher might write a list of words on the board such as sand, soft, slip, and ask the children what all the words have in common (pp. 39-40)."

In a footnote, Anderson goes on to explain, "Alternate terms which have often been used for explicit and implicit phonics are synthetic and analytic phonics, deductive and inductive phonics, or direct and indirect phonics (p. 133)."

The problem with this statement is that it ignores other ways to address the area of phonics in teaching reading. Several approaches teach phonics through the integration of functional reading and writing experiences. Rather than make reading success contingent upon a new vocabulary (short vowel, long vowel, consonant sounds, words, letters) children read predictable books and use writing to send messages.

S. Fox and V. Allen in their language arts book make the following statement: "Wepmann (1960) found that most youngsters could not differentiate among all of the consonant sounds until they were seven years of age. Yet most children learn to read before this age, which demonstrates that reading is not a sounding out process but a meaning-gaining procedure. Reading programs that require children to learn the sounds of language before reading words do not follow the research (p. 68)."

Researchers who have studied young children's growth in reading and writing suggest that children's early experiences with writing promotes the development of letter-sound knowledge. Anne Haas Dyson's statement relative to writing reflects this position relative to reading as well: "We certainly do not want to promote writing by structuring writing lessons centered on practicing letter form or copying sentences -- such lessons do not match young children's way of learning. Rather we need to weave print, and opportunities for its use, throughout the school environment." See:

Fox, S., & Allen V. (1983). *Language arts: An integrated approach*. New York: Holt.

Dyson, A. H. *Writing: A basic for young children*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

See also:

Bissex, G. L. (1980), *op. cit*.

Black, J. K. (1980). Those 'mistakes' tell us a lot. *Language Arts*, 47, 508-517.

Chomsky, C. (1971). *Write first, read later. Childhood Education*, 47, 296-299.

Chomsky, C. (1979). Approaching reading through invented spelling. In L. B. Resnick & P. A. Weaver (Eds.), *Theory and practice of early reading* (Volume 2). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Clay, M. M. (1975). *What did I write?* Auckland: Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1979). *Reading: The patterning of complex behavior* (2nd Ed.). Auckland: Heinemann.

Clay, M. M. (1982), *op. cit*.

Dyson, A. H. (1982). The emergence of visible language: Interrelationships between drawing and early writing. *Visible Language*, 16, 460-381.

Dyson, A. H. (1983). The role of oral language in the early writing process. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 17, 1-30.

Elkind, D. (1981). *The hurried child: Growing up too fast, too soon*. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Ferreiro, E., & Teberosky, A. (1982), *op. cit*.

Goodman, Y. M. (1980). *The roots of literacy*. Claremont Reading Conference Forty Fourth Yearbook.

Gundlack, R. A. (1982). Children as writers: The beginning of learning to write. In M. Nystrand (Ed.), *What writers know: The language and structure of written discourse*.

Harste, J. C., Burke, C. L., & Woodward, V. A. (1983). *The young child as writer-reader, and informant* (Final Report NIE-80-0121). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Holdaway, D. (1979), *op. cit*.

King, M. L., & Rentel, V. M. (1981). *How children learn to write: A longitudinal study* (Final Report NIE 79-0137 and 79-0039). Columbus, OH: Ohio State University.

Luria, A. R. (1983). The development of writing in the child (Trans. by M. Martlew). In M. Martlew (Ed.), *The psychology of written language: Developmental and educational perspective*. Winchester: John Wiley & Sons.

Read, C. (1975). Lessons to be learned from the preschool orthographer. In E. H. Lennenberg and E. Lennenberg (Eds.), *Foundations of language development: A multidisciplinary approach* (Volume 2). New York: Academic Press.

Strickland, D. (1983). Forward. In Denny Taylor's, *Family literacy: Young children learning to read and write*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Sulzby, E. (1982). Oral and written model adaptations in stories by kindergarten children. *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 14, 51-59.

Taylor, D. (1983). *Family Literacy: Young children learning to read and write*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Teale, W. (1982), *op. cit*.

86. The reference here is to Philip Gough. In his model of reading, readers begin by matching print to sounds, from sounds to words, and from words to a place he dubs TPWSGWTAU (The Place Where Sentences Go When They Are Understood). Gough uses this slight of hand to suggest that his model talks about initial phases of reading, prior to comprehension. His model stands in stark contrast to the models of other reading theorists who believe that perception of even such things as letter and words proceeds from a expectancy of meaning. Catell found, for example, that the more meaningful written language was grouped -- from letters, to common English letter spelling groups, to words, to sentences -- the more information readers could gather during a fixation. Frank Smith explains this in terms of what the reader brings to the page, arguing that reading always involves an interplay between information on the page and information in the head. In situations where language is meaningful readers do not need nearly as much print information as in situations where this is not the case. See:

Catell, J. M. (1886). The time it takes to see and name objects, *Mind*, 11, 63-65.

Gough, P. B. (1976). One second of reading. In H. Singer & R. B. Rudell (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Smith, F. (1978), *op*. *cit*.

87. See:

Altwerger, B., & Goodman, Y. (1980). Reading -- how does it begin? In G. S. Pinnell (Ed.), *Discovering language with children*. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

Harste, J. C., Burke, C. A., & Woodward, V. A. (1981). *Children, their language and world: Initial encounters with print* (Final Report NIE-G-79-0132). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Smith, F. (1980), *op*. *cit*.

Ylisto, I. (1967). *An empirical investigation of early reading responses in young children*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan.

Ylisto, I. (1977). Early reading responses of young Finnish children. *Reading Teacher*, 31, 167-172.

88. See Note 85.

89. A good example of this is the writings of Rudolph Flesch. See:

Flesch, R. (1955). *Why Johnny can't read*. New York: Harper.

90. This example is adapted from M. A. K. Halliday. See:

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1980). *Text and context: Aspects of language in social-semiotic perspective* (Sophia Linguistica VI). Tokyo: Sophia University Press.

91. For a theoretical as well as historical look at spelling and how it is affected by the context and experience, see:

Bouffler, C. (1983). *A case study exploration of functional strategies in spelling*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Hodges, R. (in press). *A history of spelling*. Urbana, IL: National Conference of Researcher in English.

Scibior, O. (1985). *Reconsidering spelling development: A* socio-psycholinguistic perspective. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

92. Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1984), op. cit.

93. While several persons have discussed cueing systems in language, see particularly K. S. Goodman's chapter entitled, "Reading: A psycholinguistic view," in the following volume:

Smith, E. B., Goodman, K. S., & Meredith, R. Language and thinking in school (2nd Edition). New York: Holt.

Semioticians talk about reading as involving codes rather than cueing systems though the two concepts have much in common. See:

Eco, U. (1979). The role of the reader: Exploration in the semiotics of text. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Siegel, M. (1984). Reading as signification. Outstanding IRA dissertation presentation given at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association, New Orleans.

One of the most complete discussions of cue systems in reading is found in the writing of Robert de Beaugrande. At the time that his volume on reading was written it represented one of the most complete syntheses of interdisciplinary research in existence. See:

Beaugrande, R. de. (1980), op. cit.

94. This example is taken from the following source:

Harste, J. C., Burke, C. L., & Woodward, V. A. (1981), op. cit.

95. Ferreiro, E., & Teborosky, A. (1982), op. cit.

Altwerger, B., & Goodman, Y. (1980), op. cit.

96. See Note 85.

97. In our study of what young children know about print prior to schooling (Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L., (1984), op. cit.) we found that in "messier" homes -- where paper, pencils, and books were about -- children spent much more time engaged in literacy events than in homes where this was not the case. In working with 3 year olds we took this finding and applied it to instruction via the motto "Litter the environment with print." We essentially moved the book corner to the center of the room, created a reading and writing center which children had to walk around as they came into the room, had children take their own attendance by "signing in," and literally covered the room with functional uses of print.

Through pre and post studies we found that on the average children spent ten times more time engaged in literacy events in "littered" classrooms than in non-littered ones.

98. Smith, F. (1981), op. cit.

For even a further discussion of this concept see:

Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1984), op. cit.

99. For a discussion of reading as transaction, see:

Carey, R. F. (1984). The transaction: Rosenblatt in perspective (mimeographed). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association.

Carey, R. F. (1984). Subjectivity, intersubjectivity, and semiotics: Responding to reader response (mimeograhed). Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference.

Carey, R. F., & Harste, J. C. (1985). Comprehension as context: Toward reconsideration of a transactional theory of reading. In R. Tierney, P. Anders, & K. Mitchell (Eds.), Understanding readers' understanding. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Carey, R. F., Harste, J. C., & Smith, S. L. (1981). Contextual constraints and discourse processes: A replication study. Reading Research Quarterly, 6, 201-212.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1978). The reader, the text, the poem. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois Press.

Rosenblatt, L. M. (1969). Toward a transactional theory of reading. Journal of Reading Behavior, 10, 31-43.

Shanklin, N. (1981), op. cit.

100. Kenneth S. Goodman initially explained these two forces in language in a presentation given in 1979 at the Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association. For an extended discussion of these concepts see:

Bakhtin, M. (1981). The dialogic imagination (Trans. by C. Emerson & M. Holquist). Austin, TX: University of Austin Press.

Crafton, L. (1981). The reading process as a transactional experience. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Goodman, K. (1980). Reading as language. Paper presented at the

Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association.

101. These quotes are from readers Carolyn Burke interviewed using The Reading Interview, an instrument she developed to explore student perception of the reading process. See:

Burke, C. L. (1980). The reading interview. In D. J. Strickler & B. Farr (Eds.), Reading Comprehension: Resource Guide. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

102. For further understanding the notion of curriculum as cognitive experience, see Barnes. He gives extended examples of how different classroom environments affect what students came to understand and explore about a topic and a field of study:

Barnes, D. (1976). From communication to curriculum. New York: Penguin.

103. P. David Pearson recently wrote an article advocating that we need to conceptualize instruction in terms of a release of control. From this position he accepts direct instruction for initial instruction and advocates less direction instruction as learning proceeds. The problem with this position is that it does not address nor solve the learning issue which underlies the position. I would argue that teaching and learning are a relationship and that, therefore, no direct line correspondence can be assumed. Since the learning process does not change, the teaching process at all points, should reflect this fact. See:

Pearson, P. D. (1985). Changing the face of reading comprehension instruction. The Reading Teacher, 38, 724-738.

104. See:

Smith, F. (1979). Comprehension and learning. New York: Holt.

Smith, F. (1981), op. cit.

Smith, F. (1983). The learning mind. In Essays in literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

105. For examples, refer to several examples cited in Stephens & Clyde, this volume.

105a. Brackets are my changes to Anderson et al. (1985) definition.

106. Recently there has been a renewed interest in motivation and interest among cognitive psychologists studying the reading process, though it has yet to show up in the literature. This particular piece of advice was given to me by supervising

teacher, Mrs. Margaret Pavlik (Monticello Public Schools, Monticello, MN) when I student taught years ago. Given the socio-historical tenor of the times, it seems like good advice to pass along.

107. Chicago Mastery Learning Reading, op. cit. See also:

Katimis, M., & Jones, B. F. (1979). An interview. In D. Ryan & M. Schmidt (Eds.), Mastery learning: Theory, research, and implementation. Toronto: Ministry of Education Press.

Katimis, M., & Jones, B. F. (1981). Chicago mastry learning reading: Mastery learning instruction and assessment in inner city schools. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the International Reading Association, New Orleans.

Patrick Shannon says this about mastery learning:

"Mastery learning reading programs are reduced to two basic assumptions -- a hierarchial set of goals and a teach-and-test instructional philosophy. However, limitations on time also affect these basic assumptions of mastery learning. First, because even the slowest students must become masters of reading within established time limits, reading goals are set at a minimal level and are restricted to easily definable and testable skills. With this act, some reading goals usually associated with mature reading ability are excluded from mastery learning reading curricula because they are time-consuming to teach, many students may not be able to master them, and they are difficult to test. For example, critical reading is excluded from mastery learning curricula, but is considered the crux of mature reading...(p. 486-487)." See:

Shannon, P. (1984). Mastery learning in reading and the control of teachers and students. Language Arts, 61, 484-491.

108. Engelmann, S., & Bruner, E. C. (1969). Distar Reading. Chicago, IL: Science Research Associates.

109. ECRE reading materials, op. cit.

110. Our review of research indicates that vocabulary is still a widely researched topic in the area of reading, though it is being researched for different reasons today than it was earlier. Ever since it was discovered that children with larger vocabularies tended to be ahead of their peers in both reading and writing proficiency, vocabulary and vocabulary instruction has been an issue in reading. Essentially it is assumed that by directly teaching vocabulary experiential differences could be overcome and children who were behind in reading could catch up. Thinking such as this led reading specialists to advocate the direct teaching of vocabulary as

prerequisite to reading and a part of every reading lesson. These practices continued to the point where children were denied reading opportunities because reading specialists believed they first had to build the necessary background of experience. Without the "right" vocabulary it was assumed children would not get anything out of the selection to be read, or even worse, be frustrated and develop negative attitudes towards reading. These beliefs and practices were compounded by the fact that reading was, at the time, thought to be something one could perfect or "master."

Although the instructional practices associated with this era continue in the schools, today researchers see vocabulary development as a fringe benefit of experience rather than as a prerequisite to experience. Reading is seen as an experience in its own right, one outcome of which is an expanded vocabulary. For recent work in this area see:

Freebody, P., & Anderson, R. C. (1983). Effects of vocabulary difficulty, text cohesion, and schema availability on reading comprehension. _Reading Research Quarterly_, 18, 251-345.

Freebody, P., & Anderson, R. C. (1983). Effects on text comprehension of differing proportions and locations of difficulty vocabulary. _Journal of Reading Behavior_, 15, 19-39.

Crafton, L. (1983). Learning from reading: What happens when students generate their own background information? _Journal of Reading_, 26,s 586-592.

111. This is one of the key points Barnes makes. See:

Barnes, D. (1976), _op_. _cit_.

112. For an excellent discussion on this topic and how it relates to critical thinking and recent research in sociolinguistics, see:

Erickson, F. (1984), _op. cit_.

112a. A. Wise discusses how these studies have led to the routinization of teaching and discusses this process as it affects schools under the rubric of "hyperrationalization" and indentifies recent changes in educational policy that are likely to lead to the bureaucratization of the classroom. See:

Wise, A. (1979). _Legislated learning: The bureaucratization of the American classroom_. Berkeley: University of California Press.

113. See:

Rosen, H. (1984). _Stories and their meaning_. London: National Association for the Teaching of English.

Wells, G. (1985). Storying across the curriculum. Presentation given at the Annual Conference of CEL, Winnipeg.

114. Iser, W. (1978), op. cit.

Goodman, K. S. (1984), op. cit.

Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1985), op. cit.

Harste, J. C., Siegel, M., & Stephens, D. (1985). Toward a practical theory of literacy and learning. In A. Petrosky (Ed.), Reading and writing: Research and theory. Norword, NJ: Ablex.

115. For a further discussion of abduction, deduction, and induction, see:

Deely, J. (1982). Introducing semiotic: Its history and doctrine. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.

Short, K. (1985). A new lens for reading comprehension: Comprehension processes as critical thinking. In A. Crismore (Ed.), Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984 (Final Report USDE-C-300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Siegel, M. (1984). Reading as signification. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

116. Recently there has been a renewed interest in reading and its relationship to critical thinking. The Winter, 1984, issue of the Review of Educational Research was devoted to the topic of critical thinking. See particularly articles by Maxine Greene, Frederick Erickson, and Arthur Applebee:

Applebee, A. N. (1984). Writing and reasoning. Review of Educational Research, 54, 577-596.

Erickson, F. (1984), op. cit.

Greene, M. (1984). Philosophy, reason, and literacy. Review of Educational Research, 54, 547-559.

117. Short, K. (1985), op. cit. See also Shannon in Note 107.

118. Rhodes, L. (1978), op. cit.

119. See Note 85.

120. This concept has been discussed by several researchers. See:

Eder, D. (1982). Difference in communicative styles across ability groups. In. L. C. Wilkinson (Ed.), Communicating in the classroom. New York: Academic Press.

Erickson, F. (1984), op. cit.

Heath, S. B. (1983), op. cit.

Mehan, H. (1979). Learning lessons: Social organization in the classroom. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Philips. S. (1972). Participant structures and communicative competence: Warm Springs children in community and classrooms. In C. Cazden, V. John, & D. Hymes (Eds.), Functions of language in the classroom. New York: Teachers College Press.

Scollon, R., & Scollon, S. (1981). Narrative, literacy, and face in interethnic communication. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

121. I use the term 'modality structure' building from M. A. K. Halliday's notion of a language register as being made up of field (what is happening), mode (the communication systems involved), and tenor (the relationship between the participants involved). For a discussion of language as a multimodal event, see:

Siegel, M. (1984), op. cit.

Harste, J. C., Woodward, V. A., & Burke, C. L. (1984), op. cit.

122. The basic premise of the program is that teachers are not getting their needs met in their classrooms, and that this results in, among other things, a lack of student learning. An explanation of this belief can be seen in this example from the text Assertive Discipline:

"You, the teacher, must be able to get your needs met in the classroom. You have needs, wants and feelings just like the children in your classroom. You can need a quiet classroom as much as a child can need to talk and make noise. You can want the child to stay in his seat as much as the child can want to wander around the room. You can feel as terrible at the end of the conflict - 'hassle' - ridden day as can the child. If you need a quiet class to teach effectively, you have the right to ask for quiet. If you want the children to stay in their seats during work time, you have the right to ask for it! If you want respect from the children, you have the right to ask them not to talk back to you! It is only when the teacher takes seriously her own needs, wants and feelings that she will be in a position to feel good about herself as an individual and as a teacher....We feel that your needs will be met when you implement the following "rights": (1) The right to establish a classroom structure and routine that provides the optimal learning environment in light of your own strengths and weaknesses; (2) The right to determine and request appropriate behavior from students which meet your needs and encourage the positive social and educational development of the child; (3) the right to ask for help from parents, the principal, etc., when you need assistance with a child." See:

Canter, L. (1979). Assertive discipline: A take-charge approach for today's educator. Los Angeles, CA: Canter and Associates, Inc.

Canter, L. (1979). Assertive discipline: A take-charge approach for today's educator: Competency based guidelines and resource materials. Los Angeles, CA: Canter and Associates, Inc.

For a critique, see:

Ernst, S. (1984). Assertive discipline -- an evaluation (mimeographed). Paper presented at the 1984 CELT Rejuvenation Conference, Bloomington, Indiana.

123. See Notes 120 and 121.

124. For a more detailed discussion of these strategies, see:

Harste, J. C., Stephens, D., Mitchell-Pierce, K., & Cairney, T. (1985). The authoring cycle at work in classrooms. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

125. This strategy was initially developed by Stephen Kucer to support children identify a macrostructure for the texts they write. An adaptation of this strategy makes it applicable to reading as well. See:

Kucer, S. B. Using text comprehension as a metaphor for understanding text production: Building bridges between reading and writing. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

126. See Rowe, D. W. (1985a), op. cit.

127. For an excellent summary of the issues as well as the concern that language educators have over standardized testing, see:

Langer, J. A., & Pradl, G. M. (1984). Standardized testing: A call for action (Position Paper Prepared for the Reading Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English). Language Arts, 61, 764-767.

For an in-depth look at reading assessment, see:

Johnston, P. H. (1983) Reading comprehension assessment: Cognitive basis. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Farr, R., & Carey, R. (in press). Reading, What can be measured? (2nd Edition). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.)

128. Nueraka constructed an extensive reading selection such that it became more and more difficult to read. Students were asked to read orally so that their reading could be recorded and the researcher could study the reading strategies that the students were using in order to make sense of their reading. Students who had the same SAT score used quite different reading strategies. Several students used very ineffective strategies, while others used strategies currently associated with proficient reading. The researcher concludes that SAT scores cannot be used to decide instruction in reading. See:

Nueraka, E. (1982). SAT scores and reading performance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University.

129. Langer, in her report of a two-year research project which examined the strategies students use to comprehend and answer questions from selected norm-based, standardized, multiple-choice test items, suggests caution in using the results of such tests to make decisions about any individual's performance or ability. From her detailed interview procedures, she discovered that not only did students get the right answer for the wrong reason and vice versa, but that sometimes they never had the opportunity to demonstrate their understanding of the passage at all. Langer concludes that such tests "appear to have become a 'genre' unto themselves and although successful performance on these items may in some way be related to comprehension ability, the tests themselves do not directly measure the processes involved in the development of reading comprehension nor do they evaluate an individual student's ability to manage the comprehension processes" (Langer & Pradl, op. cit, p. 765). See:

Langer, J. A. (1985). The construction of meaning and the assessment of comprehension: An analysis of reader performance on standardized test items. In R. Freedle (Ed.), Cognitive and linguistic analyses of standardized test items. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

130. Farr, R. (1979). The national assessment of educational progress: What it means. Educational Leadership, 11, 34-39.

131. This data first was reported as part of a general critique on testing presented at the 1981 Annual Meeting of the International Reading Association. See:

Altwerger, B. (1985). A political framework for understanding reading. In B. Altwerger & G. S. Pinnell (Eds.), The politics of literacy. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

132. This is really Roger Farr's definition of testing. See:

Farr, R., and Wolf, R. Evaluation and secondary reading programs. In A. Purves & O. Niles (Eds.), Becoming readers in a complex society (Part 1: 83rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

133. This argument was first demonstrated by Kenneth S. Goodman. See:

Goodman, K. S. (1983), op. cit.

Goodman, K. S. (1984). Tests as discriminatory devices. Presentation given during the Proffit Lecture Series on Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN.

134. For an excellent discussion of the issues involved in testing as well as in what direction the profession needs to move, see:

Eisner, E. W. (1985). The art of educational evaluation: A personal view. London: Falmer Press.

Johnston, P. (in press). Assessing the process, and the process of assessment, in language arts. In J. Squire (Ed)., Proceedings of the National Conference of Researchers in English Mid-Decade Seminar on Future Directions in Research. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English.

In addition, see:

Cousin, P. T. (1985). Meeting at the crossroads: Measurement in reading comprehension and in classrooms. In A. Crismore (Ed.), Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension, 1974-1984 (USDE-C300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

135. See, for example, the following studies:

Siegel, M. (1984), op. cit.

Wells, G. (1985), op. cit.

Rosen, H. (1985), op. cit.

136. In Vygotsky's own words: "The zone of proximal development...is the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as described through problem

solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. The actual developmental level characterizes mental development retrospectively, while the zone of proximal development characterizes mental development prospectively....Thus, the notion of a zone of proximal development enables us to propound a new formula, namely, that the only 'good learning' is that which is in advance of development" (pp. 86-87). See:

Vygotsky, L. S. ; (1978). In M. Cole, V. J. Steiner, S. Scribner, & E. Souberman (Eds.), Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

See also:

Wertsch, J. (1979). From social interaction to higher psychological processes. Human Development, 22, 1-22.

137. See:

Smith, S. L. (1982), op. cit.

Sternglass, M., & Smith, S. L. (1984), op. cit.

138. This model is adapted. See:

Goodman, Y. M., Burke, C. L., & Sherman, B. (1980), op. cit.

139. This statement was originally drafted by Dennis Searle when he was on leave from the University of Alberta working in the Edmonton Public Schools with Margaret Stevenson, Supervisor of Language Arts. See Note 174.

140. Analysis of oral reading has had a long tradition in reading instruction. Although no one has really addressed the issue of what constitutes a "miscue" in a retelling, even an introduction to the procedures for analyzing oral reading miscues is useful in helping teachers reconceptualize reading from a psycholinguistic perspective and in developing a "mental set" for assessing reading growth and planning instruction. See:

Goodman, Y., & Burke, C. (1972). Reading miscue inventory. New York: Macmillan. (This volume is currently being updated and will be released as: Goodman, Y., Watson, D., & Burke, C. Reading miscue inventory (2nd Edition). New York: Owens Publishing.)

Carey, R. F. (Ed.). (in press). A miscue up-date. Urbana, IL: Educational Resources in Education/National Council of Teachers of English.

141. The authors of the The Reading Report Card, a report on trends in reading over four national assessments, 1971-1984, (NAEP, *op. cit.*) report:

"There has been a conceptual shift in the way many researchers and teachers think about reading, which gives students a much more active role in the learning and reading comprehension process. This shift is reflected in changes from packaged reading programs to experiences with books and from concentration on isolated skills to practical reading and writing activities....Yet, improvements in higher-level reading skills cannot come about simply by an emphasis on reading instruction in isolation from the other work students do in school. To foster higher-level literacy skills is to place a new and special emphasis on thoughtful, critical elaboration of ideas and understandings drawn from the material students read and from what they already know. They must learn to value their own ideas and to defend as well as question their interpretations in face of alternative or opposing points of views...The development of such thoughtful, creative approaches to learning runs counter to much of what students are asked to do in school. Reading in schools is sometimes a realatively superficial activity, a prelude to a recitation of what others have said. Though not optimal, such approaches may be sufficient when teachers are most concerned with the 'right' answer and lower-level skills. At other times, reading can be a thoughtful, creative activity, one that challenges students to extend and elaborate upon what others have said and written. In developming higher-level readig skills and strategies, students will benefit from experience with a wide rante of challenging materials. Though there has been considerable concern with providing students with 'readable' texts -- and a concomitant simplification of instructional materials -- this may have inadvertently reduced students' opportunities to develop comprhenesion strategies for dealing with more complicated material that presents new ideas...There are opportunities for such experiences in all of the subjects students study in school, as well as in what they read at home. They can learn to develop their own interpretations of what they read, to question, rethink, and elaborate upon the ideas and information drawn from their reading experiences -- in conversations with their friends, in discussion with their teachers, and in the writing they do for themselves and others. And in that process, students will also be acquiring the higher-level reding comprehension skills that so many are presently lacking (pp 8-9)." For a review of the research and the trends, see:

Crismore, A. (1985), *op. cit.*

Harste, J. C. (1985a), *op. cit.*

NAEP, *op. cit.*

142. Goodman, K. S. (1965), op. cit.

143. Goodman, K. S. (1969). Analysis of oral reading miscues: Applied psycholinguistics. Reading Research Quarterly, 4, 9-30.

Smith, F. (1971). Understanding reading (1st Edition). New York: Holt.

144. Schema-theoretic approaches to reading essentially share much in common with psycholinguistic models. The following citations are considered classics and firmly established a schema-theoretic perspective on reading:

Adams, M. J., & Collins, A. (1978), op. cit.

Rumelhart, D. E. (1977), op. cit.

Rumelhart, D. E., & Ortony, A. (1977), op. cit.

Spiro, R. J. (1977), op. cit.

145. Anderson, R. C., Reynolds, R. E., Schallert, D. L., & Goetz, E. T. (1977). Framework for comprehending discourse. American Educational Research Journal, 14, 367-381.

Carey, R. F., Harste, J. C., & Smith, S. L. (1981), op. cit.

146. Bruce, C. (1979), op. cit.

Harste, J. C. (1980), op. cit.

Tierney, R. J., & LaZansky, J. (1981). The rights and responsibilities of readers and writers: A contractual agreement. Language Arts, 16, 252-267.

147. Harste, J. C., & Carey, R. F. (1980), op. cit.

Rosenblatt, L. (1978), op. cit.

148. Kintsch, W., & Dijk, T. van. (1978), op. cit.

149. Kucer, S. (1983), op. cit.

Jensen, J. M. (Ed.). (1984). Composing and comprehending. Urbana, IL: NCRE/ERIC.

Pearson, P. D., & Tierney, R. J. (1984). Reading like a writer. In A. C. Purves & O. Niles (Eds.), Becoming readers in a complex society (Part 1: 83rd Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education). Chicago, IL: Chicago University Press.

Shanklin, N. (1981), op. cit.

150. The first person to really take this position was Sharon Smith Pugh. See:

Smith, S. L. (1980). Retelling as measures of comprehension: A perspective. In J. C. Harste & R. F. Carey (Eds.), *New perspectives in comprehension* (Monographs in Language & Reading Studies). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, School of Education Publications.

150a. See Pearson, P. D. (1984). *op. cit.*

151. For a delineation and review of several instructional procedures that are rooted in research see:

Busch, K. M. (1985). A cognitive approach to reading. In A. Crismore (Ed.), *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984* (Final Report USDE-C300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Rowe, D. W. (1985a), *op. cit.*

Short, K. G. (1985), *op. cit.*

Dahl, K., & Roberts, B. (1985). Exemplary studies for teachers to use. In A. Crismore, *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984* (Final Report USDE-C300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Heine, D. (1985). Using background knowledge. In A. Crismore, *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension research, 1974-1984* (Final Report USDE-C300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, Language Education Department.

Stephens, D. (1985). Uncharted land: Reading instruction with the special education student. In A. Crismore (Ed.), *Landscapes: A state-of-the-art assessment of reading comprehension, 1974-1984* (Final Report USDE-C300-83-0130). Bloomington, IN: Language Education Departments.

152. Currently there are several reading and writing curricular studies in progress at various curricular levels. Each of these studies entailed extensive collaborative work with teachers in planning and implementing curriculum. See the following for work in preschool, kindergarten, and first grade:

Clyde, J. (1985), *op. cit.*

Short, K. (1985), op. cit.

Pierce, V. (1984), op. cit.

For work at the elementary school level, see:

Calkins, L. M. (See Note 174).

Harste, J. C., et al. (1985), op. cit.

Hansen, J., & Graves, D. (1984), op. cit.

Tierney, R. J., et al. (1983), op. cit.

Woodward, V. (1985), op. cit.

For work in special education see:

Stephens, D. (1985), op. cit.

Work at the college level for the most part involved the researcher serving simultaneously as researcher and teacher. For work at the college level, see:

Bissex, G. (1985). Supporting the writing process. Presentation given at the Annual Meeting of CEL, Winnipeg.

Brandt, D. (1985). Writer, context, and text. Paper presented as Promising Young Researcher recipient at Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English, Detroit.

Dahl, K. (1984). Reading and writing as a transactional process. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Kucer, S. (1983), op. cit.

153. M. A. K. Halliday initially developed this formulation -- learn language, learn about language, and learn through language -- in working with school personnel in Australia. His argument is that every instance of language use allows language users the opportunity to learn language, learn about language and learn through language. He further argues that all three of these opportunities should be present in every classroom activity teacher's plan.

Christie, F. (1980). The language development project (Occasional Papers 1, 2, & 3). Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre.

154. See:

Rowe, D., & Harste, J. C. (1985). Reading and writing in a system of knowing. In M. R. Sampson (Ed.), *The pursuit of literacy: Early reading and writing*. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

Harste, J. C., et al. (1985), *op. cit*.

Short, K. (1985), *op. cit*.

Stephens, D. (1985), *op. cit*.

Scibior, O. (1985), *op. cit*.

154a. For full citation, see Note 1.

155. Research Department, International Reading Association. (1984). *Responding to 'a nation at risk': Appraisal and policy guidelines*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

156. See the recent joint NCTE and IRA position paper criticizing readability formulas. Among other things it says:

> "...research has shown that student interest in the subject-matter plays a significant role in determining the readability of materials....Matching students with textbooks at appropriate levels of difficulty, therefore, is a complex and difficult task. Various pressures have forced publishers to use readability formulae to assure purchasers that their textbooks are properly 'at grade level.' Unfortunately, these formulae measure only average sentence and word length to determine the difficulty of passages. Although long words and sentences sometimes create problems of comprehension, they do not always do so. For example, the sentence "To be or not to be" is short, but includes difficult concepts. This sentence, "The boy has a big, red apple for lunch and some cookies for a snack" is long but simple. Readability formulae would allow the first sentence but not the second....Serious problems occur when publishers use readability formulas....The language doesn't sound natural to the student....complex ideas which depend on complex sentences cannot be adequately written...and there is a real danger that makers of instructional materials will avoid using interesting and important works of literature because those works....don't 'fit the formula.'....Educators and publishers should use alternative approaches for measuring text difficulty. Procedures should include: (1) Teacher evaluation of proposed texts, based on the teacher's knowledge of their students' prior information an experiences...(2) Teacher observations of students using proposed texts in instructional settings, in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the material...(3) Checklists for evaluating the readability of the proposed materials, involving attention to such variables as student interest, text graphics, the number and

difficulty of ideas and concepts in the material, the length of line in the text, and many other factors which contribute to relative difficulty of text materials" (p. 1).

For a free copy of the joint statement, write: "Readability," NCTE, 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, IL 61801.

157. Irwin, J. W., & Davis, C. (1980). Assessing readability: The checklist approach. Journal of Reading, 24, 124-130.

158. The International Reading Association under the direction of Mark Aulls currently is attempting to collect and publish a volume summarizing studies which explore reading and writing relationships.

159. See for a summary:

Harste, J. C., & Mikulecky, L. (1985), op. cit.

Rowe, D. W., & Harste, J. C. (1985), op. cit.

Siegel, M. (1984), op. cit.

160. The conceptualization is adapted from John Murray. See:

Murray, J. (1984). Dialogue as semiosis: Paulo Freire's Adult Literacy Program (mimeographed). A paper given at the Annual Meeting of the Semiotic Society of America, Bloomington, IN.

161. This model was first published in:

Harste, J. C. (1985b), op. cit.

162. Example taken from:

Harste, J. C., Burke, C. L., & Woodward, V. A. (1981), op. cit.

163. See Siegel, M. (1984), op. cit.

164. Reflexivity is defined by Michael Herzfeld as the active use of self in order to learn. See:

Herzfeld, M. (1983). Signs in the field. Semiotica, 4, 91-106.

165. For a description of some of these techniques, see:

Copeland, K. (1982). Content areas/language arts: Should they be separated? The Missouri Reader, 7, 11-12.

Hansen, J., Newkirk, T., & Graves, D. (1985). Breaking ground. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Revel-Wood, M. (1981). Science clubs. Science and Children, 60, 21-23.

Rhodes, L. K. (1983). Organizing the elementary classroom for effective language learning. In U. H. Hardt (Ed.), Teaching reading with the other language arts. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Smith, E. B., Goodman, K. S., & Meredith, P. (1976), op. cit.

Turbill, J. (Ed.). (1982). No better way to teach writing! Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

166. See Rowe, D. W. (1985a), op. cit.

167. For a list of studies, see: Appendix B in Crismore, A. (1985), op. cit.

168. Ibid.

169. Ibid.

170. Ibid.

171. Erickson, F. (1985). Qualitative research on teaching. In M. C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook on research in teaching (3rd Edition). New York: Macmillan.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). The countenances of fourth generation evaluation: Description, judgment, and negotiation (mimeographed). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, School of Education, Inquiry Program Area.

Guba, E., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1985). Do inquiry paradigms imply inquiry methodologies? (mimeographed). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, School of Education, Inquiry Program Area.

172. Pierce, V. (1984), op. cit.

173. Milz, V. (1984). A pscholinguistic description of the development of writing in selected first grade students. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Arizona.

174. In addition to the projects listed below, other projects by Nancie Atwell and Susan Stires (Boothbay Harbor, Maine), Donna Alverman (University of Georgia), Donna Ogle (National College, Chicago), Linda Crafton (Northeastern University, Evanston), Tim Perkins (Northeastern College, Boston) and others bear observation.

175. See a & b below:

(a) Carol Edelsky, Karen Smith, and Barbara Flores have been working in various schools and settings such as Phoenix, Chandler, and Lincoln. Collaboratively they are attempting to apply current insights in language and language learning to bilingual instruction. The teacher support group in the area is called SMILE and is one of the largest in the nation. Contact Carol Edelsky, Karen Smith, or Barbara Flores at Elementary Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ 85281. Contact Ralph Peterson at the same address relative to SMILE. See:

Flores, B., Garcia, E., Gonzales, S., Hidalgo, G, Kaczmarck, K., & Romero, T. (1985). Bilingual instructional strategies. Tempe, AZ: Arizona State University, Bilingual Research Center.

(b) Yetta Goodman, Ken Goodman, Dorothy King, and Sena Fitzpatrick have been working together in the Navajo and Papago schools at Chinle, Wingate, and Gallup over an extended period of time in the area of reading comprehension. One of these efforts involved replicating Donald Graves' writing project on the Papago Reservation. Contact Yetta Goodman, University of Arizona, College of Education, Tucson, AZ 85721. See:

Goodman, Y., Wilde, S., Bird, L., Vaughan, S., Kasten, W., & Weatherill, D. (1984). A two-year case study observing the development of third and fourth grade native American children's writing processes (Final Report NIE-G-81-0127). Tucson, AZ: University of Arizona, Program in Language and Literacy, Arizona Center for Research and Development.

176. Lynn Rhodes and Nancy Shanklin have a district-wide inservice project focusing on integrating reading and writing in the Denver Public Schools. Like the Albuquerque Project, the Denver Project involves a contract -- buying some of the time of each of these university faculty members. While Lynn and Nancy work with 125 teachers in this project, they concentrate their daily efforts in 12 classrooms which have been selected as demonstration centers for other teachers in the project and district. This summer they concentrated their inservice effort on kindergarten and first grade teachers. Several compilations of instructional strategies which teachers might use in their classrooms are available. Contact: Nancy Shanklin or Lynn

Rhodes, Reading Education, University of Colorado at Denver, Denver, CO 80202. See:

Rhodes, L. K. (Ed.). (1981). Children's literature: Activities and ideas (Volume 1). Denver, CO: University of Colorado, Denver, Reading Education.

177. See a & b below:

(a) Katherine Au, as part of Project KEEP, has been working to improve reading comprehension in the Kamehameha School. Initially she compared how Hawaiian teachers as opposed to Anglo teachers interacted with Hawaiian children in reading. She then developed instructional lessons in reading capitalizing on, and building from, the natural interaction patterns of the cultures involved. Children in treatment groups make significant progress in reading. Contact Katherine Au, Kamehameha School, Kamehameha Highway, Honolulu, HI. See:

Au, K. H. (1980), op. cit.

Au, K. H., & Mason, J. M. (1981), op. cit.

Tharp, R. G. (1982). The effective instruction of comprehension: Results and descriptions of the Kamehameha Early Education Program, Reading Research Quarterly, 17, 503-537.

(b) Frances Simotshu has had an ongoing project focused upon improving the teaching of reading and reading comprehension in Chapter I classrooms. To date this project has made great strides in the area of teaching reading comprehension in multicultural classrooms, and also in the area of parent involvement. Contact Frances Simotshu, Windward School District, 45-955 Kamehameha Highway, Kaneohe, HI 96744.

78. P. David Pearson, Robert Tierney, and David Tucker have been working with teachers in the Normal, Illinois, area in updating reading comprehension instruction. Their approach has been to meet with teachers and to talk with them about recent research insights in reading and reading comprehension. Teachers in the project then meet and generate what they believe to be instructional strategies which incorporate and build from these insights -- testing them out in their classroom, making revisions, and passing them along to other project teachers. Several reports have been made on the Metcalf Project at professional meetings. In some ways this project is a natural extension of a program of prior research on teaching comprehension conducted by P. David Pearson and several of his graduate students. This study demonstrated rather conclusively the effectiveness of accessing children's background information prior to reading. Contact David Tucker relative to the Metcalf Project, Illinois State University, DeGarmo Hall,

Normal, IL 61761. See:

Gallagher, M. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1983). Fourth grade students' acquisition of new information from text. Paper presented at the National Reading Conference, Austin, TX.

Hansen, J. (1981). The effects of inference training and practice on young children's reading comprehension. Reading Research Quarterly, 16, 391-417.

Hansen, J., & Pearson, P. D. (1983). An instructional study: Improving the inferential comprehension of good and poor fourth grade readers. Journal of Educational Psychology, 75, 821-829.

Tierney, R. F., Pearson, P. D., & Tucker, D. (1984), op. cit.

179. See a, b, c, d, & e below:

(a) Jean Anne Clyde has been involved in a collaborative curriculum study with preschool teachers in an attempt to study and find out what might be done to highlight reading and writing activities at this level. To date they have developed a set of instructional strategies which teachers might implement and use in designing more effective literate environments at this level. Contact Jean Anne Clyde, 211 Education Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47401. See:

Clyde, J. A. (in process), op. cit.

(b) Jerome Harste and Carolyn Burke worked with Myriam Revel-Wood (Bloomington, Indiana), Mary Lynn Woods (Zionsville, Indiana), and Susan Robinson (Indianapolis, Indiana) over a 3-year period. The focus of this project was the development of a total comprehension-centered reading and writing curriculum for use in regular elementary school classrooms. These 3 teachers and their classrooms are featured in a new videotape series. Contact Jerome Harste, 211 Education Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47401. See:

Harste, J. C. (Host & Developer), & Juerwicz, E. (Producer & Director) (1985), op. cit.

Harste, J. C., Mitchell-Pierce, K., & Cairney, T. (1985). The authoring cycle: A viewing guide. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Harste, J. C., et al. (in process). The authoring cycle at work in classrooms. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

(c) Tony Kring, an elementary school principal, worked with her staff to develop a reading and writing curriculum that reflected recent insights in literacy and literacy learning. Tony began small, working with a single teacher. Success in this room spread throughout the school. Contact Tony Kring, Principal, Indian Meadow School, 4310 Hemstead Road, Fort Wayne, IN 46804.

(d) Katherine Short and Gloria Kauffman, a first grade teacher in Goshen, Indiana, have been collaborating on setting up a literature-based comprehension centered classroom using literature study groups and other instructional techniques to stimulate critical thinking, extensive reading, and writing. Although this was initially a single classroom, year-long project, it has now spread to other rooms in the school. Contact Katherine Short, Ohio State University, 204 Ramseyer Hall, 29 West Woodruff, Columbus, Ohio 43210. See:

Short, K. (1985), *op. cit.*

(e) Diane Stephens and Cynthia Brabson have collaborated on how to more effectively integrate writing in the reading program. This project is focused in a special education classroom and is the subject of a dissertation in progress. Contact Diane Stephens, 211 Education Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47401. See:

Stephens, D. (in process), *op. cit.*

180. See a, b & c below:

(a) Heidi Mills (Grand Forks, Michigan) attempted to work with the early childhood education staff in the Grand Forks School District to develop a theoretically based reading and writing program for 3, 4, and 5 year olds in a Title 1 program. Currently an evaluation device is being developed for purposes of charting the progress children made over a 3 year period. Contact Heidi Mills, 211 Education Building, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47401. See:

Mills, H. (in process). *Writing evaluation: A transactional process.* Unpublished dissertational research, Indiana University.

(b) Vera Milz (Bloomfield Hills, Michigan) has attempted to apply what she has learned about language and language learning to her work in a combination first and second classroom. Her classroom has become a demonstration center for the school and nation. Contact Vera Milz, Way Elementary School, 765 East Long Lake Road, Bloomfield Hills, MI. See:

Milz, V. (1984), *op. cit.*

(c) Scott Paris has had an extensive program of research designed explicitly to teach several cognitive monitoring activities which researchers have found to be associated with successful reading. His program includes classroom support materials which teachers report as useful in setting up the program. See:

Paris, S. G. (in press). Teaching children to guide their reading and learning. In T. E. Raphael & R. Reynolds (Ed.), Contexts of literacy. New York: Longman.

Paris, S. G., Cross, D. R., & Lipson, M. Y. (1984). Informed strategies for learning: A program to improve children's reading awareness and comprehension. Journal of Educational Psychology, 76, 1239-1252.

181. Dorothy Watson and Kittye Copeland began by forming a teacher self-support group given Kittye's frustration in trying to make changes in a district that seemed unsupportive of her efforts. Over the years more and more teachers have joined their support group which they call TAWL, Teachers Applying Whole Language. To date they have published two books (one elementary, one secondary) containing strategy lessons which they found successful in moving towards implementing a comprehension-centered reading and writing program. Because of the success of this group, TAWL groups have sprung up all over the country. Currently national TAWL meetings are held in conjunction with the Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English and the International Reading Association. Contact Dorothy Watson, 209 Education Building, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO 65211. See:

Bixby, M., Crenshaw, S., Crowley, P., Gilles, C., Henricks, M., Pyle, D., & Waters, F. (1984). Strategies that make sense: Invitations to literacy for secondary students. Columbia, MO: TAWL (1900 Lovejoy Lane, Columbia, MO 65201).

Huelett, J. (Ed.). (1982). Whole language activities for a comprehension centered language program. Columbia, MO: TAWL (1900 Lovejoy Lane, Columbia, MO 65201).

182. Jane Hansen and Donald Graves currently have a project in which they are working with teachers to implement a process approach to both reading and writing in classrooms. They report significant gains in reading as a function of writing. Contact Jane Hansen or Donald Graves, Morrill Hall, University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire.

Hansen, J. (in press). Organizing student learning: Teachers teach how and what. In J. Squire (Ed.), Proceedings of the Mid-Decade Seminar on Future Directions in Research. Urbana, IL: National Conference of Research in English/NCTE.

183. Bess Altwerger, Virgina Resta, Bonnie Iverson, Mary Ellen Gallegos and others have been working with Chapter I Reading Teachers in the Albuquerque Public Schools in setting up a comprehension-centered reading and writing program. Currently

Albuquerque Public Schools has contracted with the University of New Mexico to buy 1/3rd of Bess Altwerger's time from the university for her to work with Virgina in classrooms and to conduct inservice sessions for Chapter I teachers. As part of this effort an instructional strategy guide for Chapter I reading teachers has been developed. Contact Virgina Resta or Bess Altwerger, Albuquerque Public Schools, North Area Office, 120 Woodland Northwest, Albuquerque, NM 87107. See:

Resta, V. (Ed.). (1984). Chapter I reading instructional strategies guide for north area elementary Chapter I reading teachers. Albuquerque, NM: Albuquerque Public Schools North Area Office, 120 Woodland N. W., Albuquerque, NM 87107.

184. See a & b below:

(a) Lucy McCormick Calkins is currently working with teachers in the New York School District to implement a process approach to the teaching of writing. To date, Lucy has made great strides in a district riddled with problems. Contact Lucy McCormick Calkins, Teacher College, Columbia, University, New York. See:

Calkins, L. (1984), op. cit.

(b) M. Trika Smith-Burke has had an on-going project to improve the teaching of reading comprehension in the New York Public Schools. This project is one of the first and oldest reading comprehension focused inservice efforts in the country. Other projects have grown from the errors as well as the achievements this project made. A series of television programs on reading comprehension was televised to teachers in the New York area in conjunction with this project as part of the series Sunrise Semester. Contact M. Trika Smith Burke, Department of Educational Psychology, 933 Shimkin Hall, New York City, NY 10003.

185. Vito Perrone and members of the Center for Teaching and Learning at the University of North Dakota in Grand Forks are the base of a group known as the North Dakota Study Group. This group has a long-time interest in the improvement of education as well as teacher education. Life-time members such as Ruth Gallant and Clair Peterson have worked closely with teachers in North Dakota and other states to that end. Both the North Dakota Study Group and the Center for Teaching and Learning at the University of North Dakota sponsors a variety of publications of interest to teachers and teacher educators. Contact Vito Perrone, Dean, Center for Teaching and Learning, University of North Dakota, Grand Forks, ND, 58202. See:

Carini, P. F. (1979). The school lives of seven children: A five year study. Grand Forks, ND: North Dakota Study Group.

186. See a & b below:

(a) Gay Su Pinnell and Diane DeFord have received funding from the State of Ohio to implement Marie Clay's early intervention reading program in selected first grade classrooms in the Columbus, Ohio area. During the first year of this project Marie Clay was brought over from New Zealand to work with project staff in setting up and implementing the project. This year plans are to revise as well as extend the project. Contact Gay Su Pinnell, Ohio State University, 219 Arps Hall, 1945 North High Street, Columbus, OH 43210. See:

DeFord, D. (1985). Teacher change: The environment and the success. Paper given at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference.

(b) Richard Vacca has been working with teachers in the Clevland Public Schools to develop an integrated reading and writing program at the elementary and secondary school level. One component of this project has been to identify effective strategies for teacher change. Contact Richard Vacca, Kent State University, Reading Department, Kent, Ohio. See:

Vacca, R. T. (1984). Elementary teachers' level of use and adaptation of writing process strategies. Paper given at the Annual Meeting of the National Reading Conference.

187. Virginia Pierce has been working with two first grade teachers in Sherman, Texas implementing what they call a natural language learning model of reading and writing in these classrooms. Children in these two classrooms made almost 2 years gain as compared to children in other first grade classrooms in the same school. Contact Virginia Pierce, Department of Elementary Education, Austin College, Sherman, TX. See:

Pierce, V. (1984), op. cit.

188. Margaret Stevenson, Supervisor of Language Arts for the Edmonton Public Schools, has had an on-going project to infuse writing in the reading program using many of the ideas of Jimmy Britton and others. She and her staff have made great progress in changing a large school district. Contact Margaret Stevenson, Supervisor, Language Arts, Edmonton Public Schools, 10010-107A Avenue, Edmonton, Alberta T5H 0Z8.

189. Judith Newman, Olga Scibior, Alan Neilsen, and Andy Manning have been working with teachers in the Halifax area on improving reading and writing instruction in schools. For this purposes they have formed on-going study groups taking up different topics each year. Teachers in the project have compiled an instructional strategy handbook for elementary teachers as well as have on-going projects in their classrooms.

To date they have worked on areas such as beginning reading and writing, using computers in the language arts classroom, and improving secondary reading instruction. Contact Judith Newman, Olga Scibior, Alan Neilsen or Andy Manning at Mount Saint Vincent University, Education Department, 166 Bedford Highway, Halifax, Nova Scotia B3M 2J6. See:

Newman, J. M. (Ed.). (1982). Whole language activities. Halifax: 15 Braeside Lane, Halifax, NS B3M 3J6.

Newman, J. M. (1983). Whole language: Translating theory into practice (Monographs on Learning and Teaching). Halifax: 15 Braeside Lane, Halifax, NX B3M 3J6.

190. Ethel Buchanan and Orin Cochrane began by doing inservice programs for teachers on how to improve the teaching of reading given recent insights into the process. As they went around the district they invited teachers to join them in this effort. Once they had a group of committed teachers they went to the Winnipeg School Board and asked to be transferred to an inner-city school having a history of low achievement. Over a period of seven years they transformed this school into a demonstration center for the district. They have recently begun to sponsor and publish a newsletter entitled Connections. Contact Orin Cochrane, Principal, David Livingstone School, 170 Flora Avenue, Winnipeg, Manitoba R2W 2P9. See:

Buchanan, E. (1980), op. cit.

Cochrane, O., et al. (1985), op. cit.

191. Stephens, D. (1985), op. cit.

192. See the following titles for a description of two very effective preschool parent involvement projects:

Steffel, N. (1985). Nuturing literacy: A curriculum for parents of newborn to three-year-old children. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

Hill, M. (1980). Parenting and language education: A theoretical view of parental role in children learning to read and write. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University.

193. This analogy was initially made by Kenneth S. Goodman in an address to the Elementary Section of the National Council of Teachers of English. For reprint write:

"An open letter to President Jimmy Carter," 1111 Kenyon Road, National Council of Teachers of English, Urbana, IL 61802.

194. Stephens, D. (1985), op. cit.

195. Goodman, Y. M. (1985). Extending the cycle. In J. C. Harste (Host & Developer) & E. Juerwicz (Producer & Director), The authoring cycle: Read better, write better, reason better (videotape series). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

196. Donald Graves initially made this statement in relationship to how it is we teach writing in the United States during a keynote address at Fall Language Arts Conference of the National Council of Teachers of English in Hartford, CN. Given the issues and the tendency to seek 'Quick-Fix' solutions, I use the quote here to remind everyone that literacy and critical thinking go hand-in-hand. This holds for children, but also for teachers, parents, administrators, and school board members as they go about developing educational policies which see literacy as a potential rather than as a problem.

POSTSCRIPT

Postscript

TERESA: A RECIPROCAL LEARNING EXPERIENCE FOR TEACHER AND CHILD

by
Cora Five
5th Grade Teacher

When Teresa entered my 5th grade class last September, I thought she was hopeless. She was severely labeled and no one expected much from her. However, she changed dramatically during the year, and I think her involvement in a my comprehension centered classroom enabled her to grow as a reader, a writer, a student, and most important , as a person who believed in herself.

Teresa was 11 when she entered fifth grade, a year older than the other students. I had heard about Teresa and her two older brothers for five or six years. Each had been declared learning disabled by the Committee on the Handicapped when the boys and then Teresa were in the first grade. There had been many meetings between the family and the school in an attempt to place all three children in a special school for students with severe disabilities. When the parents continued to refuse, the children were given aides who worked with them on an individual basis for 15 hours a week. They received this individualized instruction throughout their elementary school years.

I had also heard from Teresa's previous teachers that Teresa was a good, quiet child who would sit in my room all year and do nothing. "Don't expect much," they warned. "It's not so bad...She comes with an aide who takes her out of the room most of the day so you really don't have to do anything." And for the first month or two I believed them and didn't try to work with her. She left my room at 9:00 each morning and returned for special classes -- art, gym, and music. She didn't come back into my room until the afternoon and spent the last two hours of the day, when I usually had writing and either social studies or science, sitting at her desk working in the handwriting and phonics workbooks that the skills teacher and aide had selected to help her improve.

Her aide told me that Teresa could do very little. She felt that Teresa was smarter than her brothers but that we still should not expect much. "I'll do the same type of program that I did with the boys....I'll work on the addition and subtraction facts and try to show her how to use money....Anything I can get her to do will be a miracle....She doesn't remember what I've taught so I have to go over and over it," she explained to me at the end of September.

Teresa is the youngest child of her father's second marriage. She has two older brothers and three older half brothers and sisters from the first marriage. Teresa's mother has been in the

United States for a number of years. She speaks Italian to the children as does the father, although he can speak some words and phrases in English. The parents maintain a very limited, restricted home environment for Teresa. They take few trips and Teresa is not allowed to play with other children after school. Her social contacts occur, for the most part, in school.

At the end of kindergarten, it was recommended that Teresa repeat the year. She had not attended nursery school and had none of the preschool academic and social skills. She appeared very immature, inexperienced and frightened. This recommendation was not accepted by the family and Teresa was sent to parochial school where, at the end of first grade, retention was prescribed. Her father then brought her back to my school where she repeated first grade.

Teresa was tested extensively in first grade by the skills teacher and the psychologist. The testing report states, "...An examination of her test scores indicates deficits in every academic area...Her 1979 WPPSI scores are on the Retarded Level." The Peabody Picture Vocabulary test gives her IQ as 73. The individualized WPPSI equivalent IQ scores listed in this first grade report are as follows: verbal conceptualizing ability 87; spatial ability 80; acquired knowledge score 67; and sequencing ability 64.

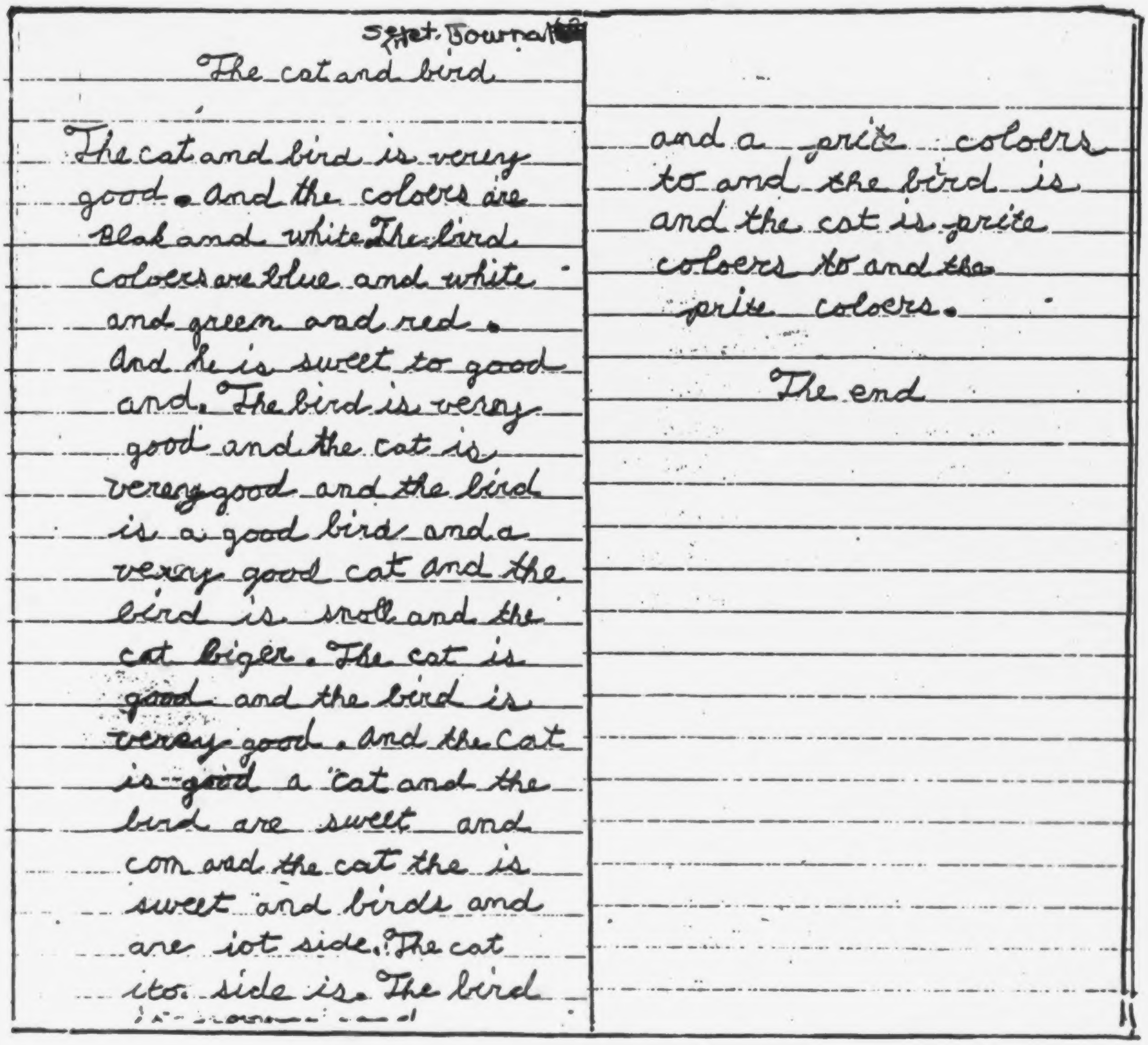
By the end of first grade, she was labeled 'learning disabled.' She was given an aide who worked with her until the end of fourth grade. This year's aide was new, although Teresa knew her because she had worked with her brothers.

At the start of the year Teresa was taller than most of the other children. She was a slim, pale, pretty girl who rarely smiled. She had been placed in my room with her only friend, Amy, another girl with few friends. They had been together in fourth grade in an unstructured class environment. While their teacher was familiar with the writing process, the class did not write often. When they did write, Teresa wrote with her aide who was not acquainted with the process. As a result, when Teresa wrote, she either dictated to the aide or had her spelling and mechanical errors immediately corrected as she struggled to put her ideas on paper.

For the first few months of fifth grade Teresa wrote on her own. Often she wrote two or three words over and over again on a page (see Figure 1). Her journal entries and her class writing during September were about her family's cat and bird, topics she had used in fourth grade.

Toward the end of September she had a writing conference with me. She told me her piece was about her brother's cat and his bird. When I asked what the cat looked like, she told me it was black and white. When I asked her to tell me about the bird, she

Figure 1. Journal Entry -- September (Teresa).



Sept. Journal

The cat and bird

The cat and bird is verery
good. And the coloers are
Blak and white. The bird
coloers are blue and white
and green and red.
And he is sweet to good
and. The bird is verery
good and the cat is
verery good and the bird
is a good bird and a
verry good cat and the
bird is snoll and the
cat biger. The cat is
good and the bird is
verery good. And the cat
is good a cat and the
bird are sweet and
com and the cat the is
sweet and birds and
are iot side. The cat
ito. side is. The bird
[illegible]

and a prite coloers
to and the bird is
and the cat is prite
coloers to and the
prite coloers.

The end

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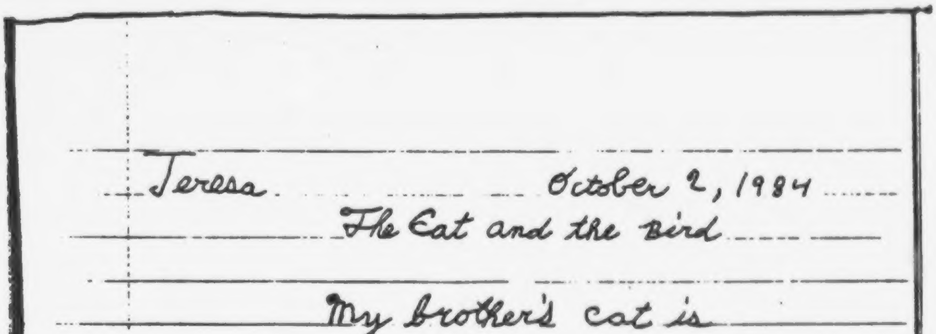
responded with, "He flies around the house." I asked her if she would like to include these details in her piece. She said, "I don't know." I told her that she was the writer and she could decide what to put in her piece. She seemed confused and went back to her seat. She eventually included them. After an editing conference with me, she produced her first edited piece at the beginning of October (see Figure 2).

Figure 2. My Brother's Cat and his Bird -- Beginning of October (Teresa).



Teresa October 2, 1984

The Cat and the Bird

My brother's cat is
scared of
The bird is blue and white.
He is sweet and my brother's cat
is sweet. The cat black and
white. He is Black and white.
He is verey good. My bird is
verey good too. He flies around
the house. The cat runs away
from the bird.

During October, Teresa continued to write in her journal. She described most things, animals, and people as "very good". She would not share these entries with me or her peers in conferences so I responded to them by writing back to her in her journal. Her journal writing seemed to be a vehicle for personal growth.

Toward the end of November she was writing longer entries and the topics were expanded. She wrote about playing in the park with her sister, about ice cream and other foods, and about her friend, Amy. She began to express her feelings, too. "I love my brothers to"..."And I like you to Nicole and my brothers and my dad and my mom to."

Teresa was reluctant to come for conferences but she sat near the conference table and seemed to be listening to other children confer together and with me. Gradually she began to talk to Amy, telling her about the topics of her journal pieces. Amy offered lots of advice and sometimes Teresa tried to include some of Amy's suggestions in her journal, usually at the end of her entry. I think this was an important first experience for Teresa. Because she made some decisions about her writing based on Amy's response, it was the beginning of her developing sense of ownership. It was also a start at interacting with and learning from another child.

Toward the middle of November I asked Teresa if she would like to have a conference with me. Each day I asked every student to tell me what they planned to do during the writing period. Teresa always answered, "First draft." She never requested a conference of any kind. This time, however, she said, "Yes," and told me she was writing a piece about her duck.

During the conference, I asked her questions about her piece, "What parts do you like? What's the most important thing about your piece? What would you like the other kids to know about the duck?" She was eager to talk about the duck and wanted to include these details in her piece but appeared confused.

I thought perhaps it might be helpful if she added only one detail at a time. Each time she told me something about the duck, I asked her if she would like to add it to her piece. If she said, "Yes," I would then ask her where she would like to put it. She would struggle to read her piece and when she found a place she would rush back to her desk, write out a sentence, and tape it in the spot she chose. Then she'd come back to the conference table to tell me more, would again write out one sentence at her desk, and tape that in another place. This became a pattern for revision that continued for most of the year.

Her piece about the duck seemed to be a big breakthrough. It was the first time she had a sense of revision based on response. It was a new experience for her to rethink and add information to her piece to make it clearer and more interesting.

Another new experience for Tersea was the importance of audience. She told me that the duck ate macaroni because that was what her mother cooked for the duck. She was somewhat perplexed when I laughed, but, when I explained why I thought it was funny, she laughed, too. She added to her story, "He eats macaroni....My mother cooks macaroni for the duck....I think it is weird."

This story was a turning point for Teresa. She was very proud of it. She knew she had worked hard on it and, I think, sensed it was her own. She showed the piece to the skills teacher, her fourth grade teacher, and her former aide. She would not share it with the class but it remained her favorite piece throughout the year "...because it was funny."

After the duck story, Teresa came for conferences often. She was most comfortable in expressing her ideas with me, but she talked often with Amy. I did not make any judgments about her writing but always asked for her opinion and thoughts. Amy, on the other hand, wanted to help Teresa in any way possible and often wrote in sentences and told Teresa what she should do to make her piece better. In group conferences Teresa said very little but watched and listened and learned from the other children. Soon she was able to respond as they did. In a barely audible voice she would tell one thing she liked about another child's story. However, she would not discuss her own.

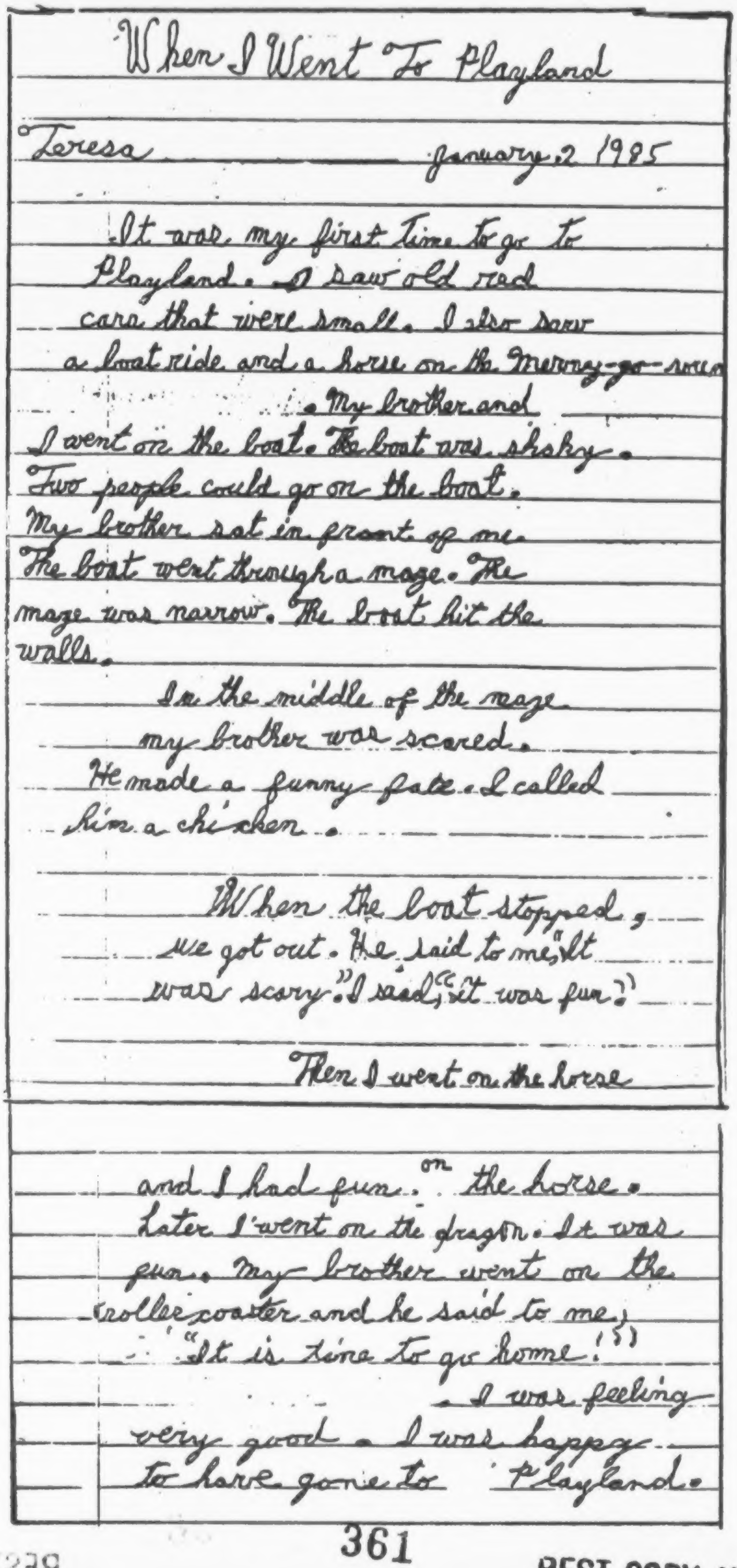
Her writing continued to improve and she took great pleasure in it. She began to ask each day, "Will I be here for writing?" She knew we always had writing in the afternooon when she was not with her aide but she began to worry about leaving the classroom once a week to work with the skills teacher. Often she did not want to go. Occasionally she told the skills teacher that I would not let her leave the room that day.

In January Teresa wrote a story about a trip to Playland, an amusement park. She talked about her first draft with me and two other children. She added details as a result of these conferences: "The boat was shaky....The boat went through a maze....The maze was narrow....The boat hit the wall." She was pleased with this piece, too, but did not choose to share it with the class (see Figure 3).

During the winter months the class was involved in the study of American history and Teresa was exposed to additional strategies for learning; reading historical fiction, small group conferences, and simulations. The students participated in a game where most of the class was treated unfairly by a small group given special power to rule. This was an attempt to have the students understand the sentiments and feelings of the colonists. Although Teresa was a quiet participant, she was part of the group. She was more actively involved when the class recreated the Constitutional Convention. The boys became delegates while the girls sat in the back of the room listening intently, angry at being excluded because of their sex. "It's not fair," Teresa shouted with the rest of the girls.

Through these simulations and the sharing of ideas and feelings in group conferences Teresa seemed to realize that she

Figure 3. Playland Story -- January (Teresa).



When I Went To Playland

Teresa January 2 1985

It was my first time to go to Playland. I saw old red cars that were small. I also saw a boat ride and a horse on the Merry-go-roun . My brother and I went on the boat. The boat was shaky. Two people could go on the boat. My brother sat in front of me. The boat went through a maze. The maze was narrow. The boat hit the walls.

In the middle of the maze my brother was scared. He made a funny face. I called him a chicken.

When the boat stopped, we got out. He said to me, "It was scary." I said, "It was fun."

Then I went on the horse and I had fun on the horse. Later I went on the dragon. It was fun. My brother went on the roller coaster and he said to me, "It is time to go home!" I was feeling very good. I was happy to have gone to Playland.

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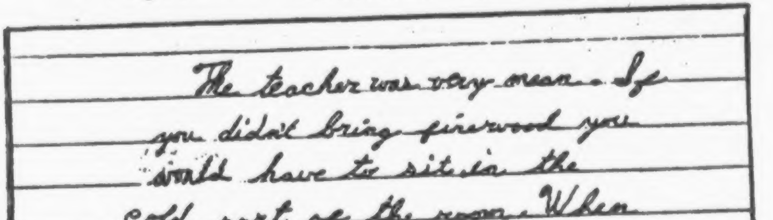
had ideas that she could express. She came to understand that her ideas were respected and were to be taken seriously. She often was exposed to new ideas which gave her perspective.

As part of social studies, the class wrote reports about colonial times and the Civil War period. Before the students began writing the actual report, they spent weeks immersed in reading. They selected books that appealed to them and read both non-fiction and historical fiction. They viewed filmstrips and films and listened to cassettes. They discussed their ideas and findings with partners or in small groups. Teresa was included in all of these activities.

Her first report, written in January, was about colonial schools. She read two short books and relied heavily on the illustrations as a source of information. When she conferred with others who had the same topic she was able to explain what she had learned. She learned a lot from Amy and another child who had read extensively on the subject. She incorporated this information in her report and added a section at the end describing her feelings (see Figure 4).

Figure 4. Colonial Times (Teresa).



The teacher was very mean. If
you didn't bring firewood you
would have to sit in the
cold part of the room. When
the students were bad the
teacher would put the student
in the corner of the room with a sign.
a sign. They read a book called
a Bible. They used the grown-up book.
book. I didn't like when the
teacher was mean and when the
teacher said to go to the cold part
of the room and when the teacher
put the sign on the student.
I don't like when the teacher said
to the student to bring firewood
because it was mean.

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Teresa was taking more and more risks. She participated in many conferences and always attempted writing her reports on her own. In fact, when the aide tried to help, Teresa refused. It seemed to be important to her to do as much as she could by herself. She included many illustrations in both her colonial report and her report on Harriet Tubman. In this way she learned to mean using different forms of expression instead of relying exclusively on print, an area which, because of her insistence on letter perfect conventional spelling, continued to cause her some frustration.

As Teresa's confidence in her writing abilities grew, her social relationships improved. Although Amy still remained her special friend, she began to socialize with other girls. By February Amy did not have the influence over Teresa that she had had in the fall. Amy complained that Teresa would not listen to her anymore and that she was even trying to boss her around.

Teresa began to use the slang expressions that the other girls used and seemed secretly pleased when the boys teased her as they did the other girls. She also started to dress the way the other children did. She wore the bracelets and necklaces that they wore and listened intently to all their talk about Madonna and the classes they had had in sex education. She didn't contribute often but seemed happy to be part of 'the girls.'

The classroom environment affected Teresa in another way. As a writer, Teresa had begun to understand that she had options and choices and that these were opportunities to make decisions. I do not think she had been exposed to this freedom before. Her past years appear to have been spent obediently following the instructions given by her aide. In the early spring she became a 'talker' and began to assert herself. In class, she began to talk often, disrupting the class at times with her newly developed confidence. Instead of leaving at 9:00 to meet her aide, she would look at the clock, look at me, and stay in the room to listen to the day's news team discuss news events. I never forced her to leave.

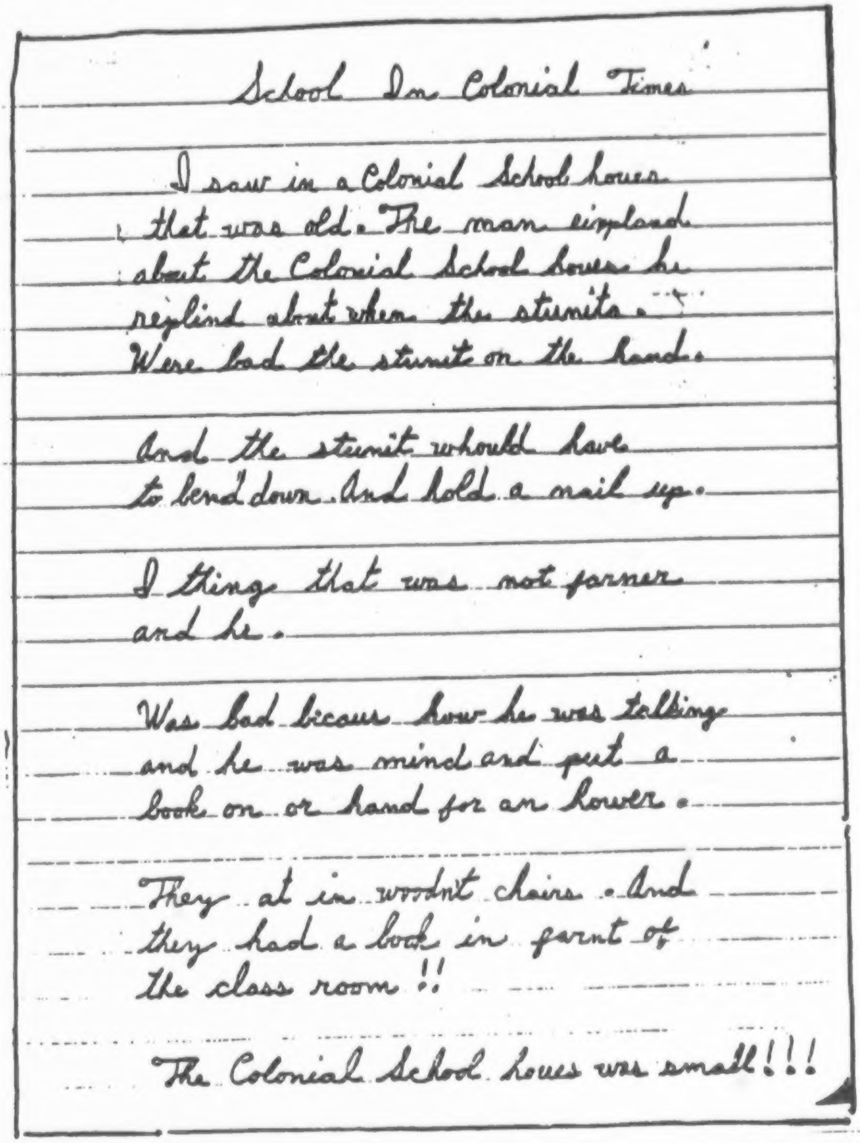
One day Teresa decided that she too wanted to be on a news team. She and her aide selected a news article and she gave her news report. This was the first time she had spoken in front of the class.

In the weeks that followed Teresa raised her hand occasionally to answer questions. She told me she wanted to stay in class and do the same math that the other children were doing. I let her stay until her aide finally came to claim her.

Teresa wanted to take the same practice writing tests for the New York state writing test that everyone else took. She was willing to try and experiment with the assigned topics I gave in preparation for the spring test. She waited anxiously for me to return the tests so she could read the comments I wrote to her and, if I held hers for a day or two to show to other teachers, she demanded to have them and have a conference so she would know how to improve. In the fall I had decided that she would not take the state test. By May Teresa wanted to take the test and was involved in so many of the same activities as the other students that she took it and passed!

In May, Teresa and I convinced her father to let her go on a day-long trip to Sturbridge, Massachusetts to explore the 1830 restored village. She delighted in most of the things that she saw but was especially interested in the school and the schoolmaster. Here she related her prior knowledge of colonial schools to her impressions of this school (see Figure 5).

Figure 5. Sturbridge Story -- May (Teresa).



School In Colonial Times

I saw in a Colonial School houes
that was old. The man eixplaned
about the Colonial School houes he
reiplind about when the stunits.
Were bad the stunit on the hand.

And the stunit whould have
to bend down And hold a nail up.

I thing that was not farner
and he.

Was bad becaus how he was talking
and he was mind and put a
book on or hand for an hower.

They at in woodnt chairs. And
they had a book in farnt of
the class room!!

The Colonial School houes was small!!!

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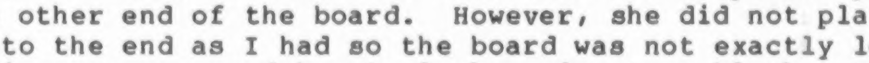
By late spring Teresa became much more assertive and often refused to leave the class to work with her aide. She especially wanted to take part in our science study of bridges. The rest of the class had a good understanding of balance; the aide was positive that Teresa could not understand the concept of balancing and so would not work with her on it.

I began to work with Teresa indivdually to help her understand. When I first mentioned the word 'balance,' Teresa told me she had not heard of it. I took a piece of wood and a fulcrum from the science cart and made what she recognized as a see-saw. We moved the board around on the fulcrum until it remained level. I told her it was balanced. Then I took a block and placed it on one end of the board and asked her how I could make the board balanced again without removing the block.

At first she didn't know and didn't seem to have any ideas or strategies for discovering an answer. I suggested she look at the materials on the science cart to see if anything there might help her. She selected a few blocks of different sizes and finally placed three of various sizes on the other side of the board and looked to see what had happened to the board. It was not level and I told her it was not balanced. She then began to experiment by removing blocks one at a time. When the board still did not balance she began to examine the block I had placed on the board. She found a block that was the same size and shape and placed it on the other end of the board. However, she did not place it as close to the end as I had so the board was not exactly level. This dissonance caused her to look again at my block. She then adjusted her block so it was in the same place as mine, and the board was balanced.

Teresa spent the next half hour balancing blocks of various sizes on the ends of the board. She discovered that she could balance three small blocks with my one block. Then she decided to investigate her idea of balance with other things. She balanced her pencil and eraser with a small block; the stapler with her math book, three blocks, and a roll of tape. After a while I asked her to record her work in her science journal and she drew diagrams showing the board with the various items balanced. I told her she could express her ideas in another way. She could use = signs. She tried this way, too, and wrote under her diagrams 3 small blocks equals 1 block; 1 stapler equals 1 book, 3 blocks, 1 tape (see Figure 6).

Figure 6. Journal Entry -- Balance (Teresa).

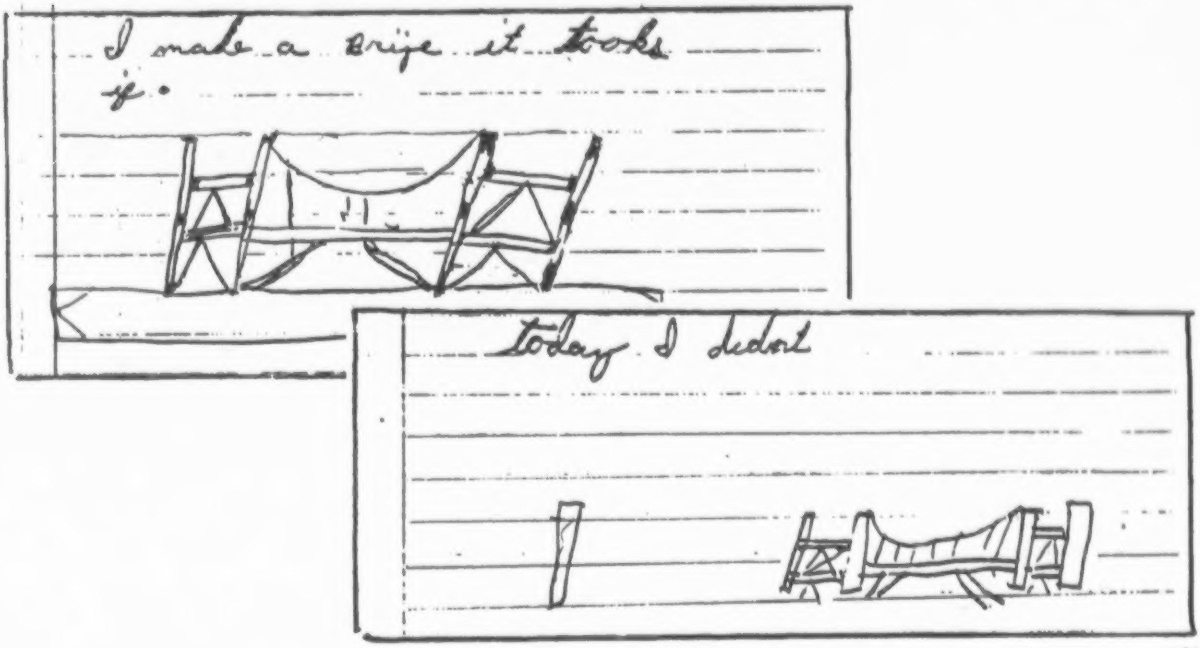


3 small blocks = 1 block 1 stapler = 1 book 3 blocks 1 tape

Teresa continued to enjoy the concept of balancing. She began to move the items to various places on the board and still had them balanced. She learned that it made a difference where the objects were on the board. She continued to record her observations through pictures.

Teresa eventually went on to apply her understanding of balance to her final project, a bridge, built out of 250 plastic straws, tape, and straight pins. She selected cues from many sources -- books, pictures, discussions -- and built a strong, well balanced bridge. Her creativity was expressed in the design of her bridge and structure. She continued to rely on drawings as she recorded her progress in her journal (see Figure 7).

Figure 7. Journal Entry -- Bridge Building (Teresa).



I make a Brije it tooke it.

today I dedat

Throughout the unit on structure, the children did much brainstorming. Often they did more talking than actual work as they discussed ideas and experimented with materials. They tried many different ways of making a bridge that would hold a lot and would not collapse. They wanted reactions and were very accepting of suggestions as they revised their bridges by adding triangles and squares to make them stronger. They tore down and reconstucted their bridges many times. They conferred, researched, and revised again. Each time, the bridges improved.

By the end of the year Teresa had blossomed into an enthusiastic girl who raced across the playground eager to get to school. She was animated and playful, full of affectionate gestures for those she liked. Her last writing project involved

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writing a fictional story for a first grade partner. The fifth graders in my room had been paired with first grade partners in September. They worked together weekly on various activities. Teresa had worked with Jennifer all year helping her with reading, writing, and math. In June, she had her interview with Jennifer. She used the information from the interview to write her story.

Teresa initially put all the information she gathered into her draft. When she came for a conference, Paul said to her, "That doesn't sound like a story...It sounds sort of like a report."

Teresa was confused and told us she didn't know how to write a story. Finally another student asked what Jennifer liked best and Teresa told us "Spaghetti and meatballs!"

Danny suggested that Teresa have Jennifer go to Spaghetti Land. "How can I do that?" Teresa responded. She appeared to think about it as she listened to other children's stories. Later, she discussed her ideas with Amy and Christine. Eventually she had the first draft of a story about Spaghetti Land and Jennifer's adventures there.

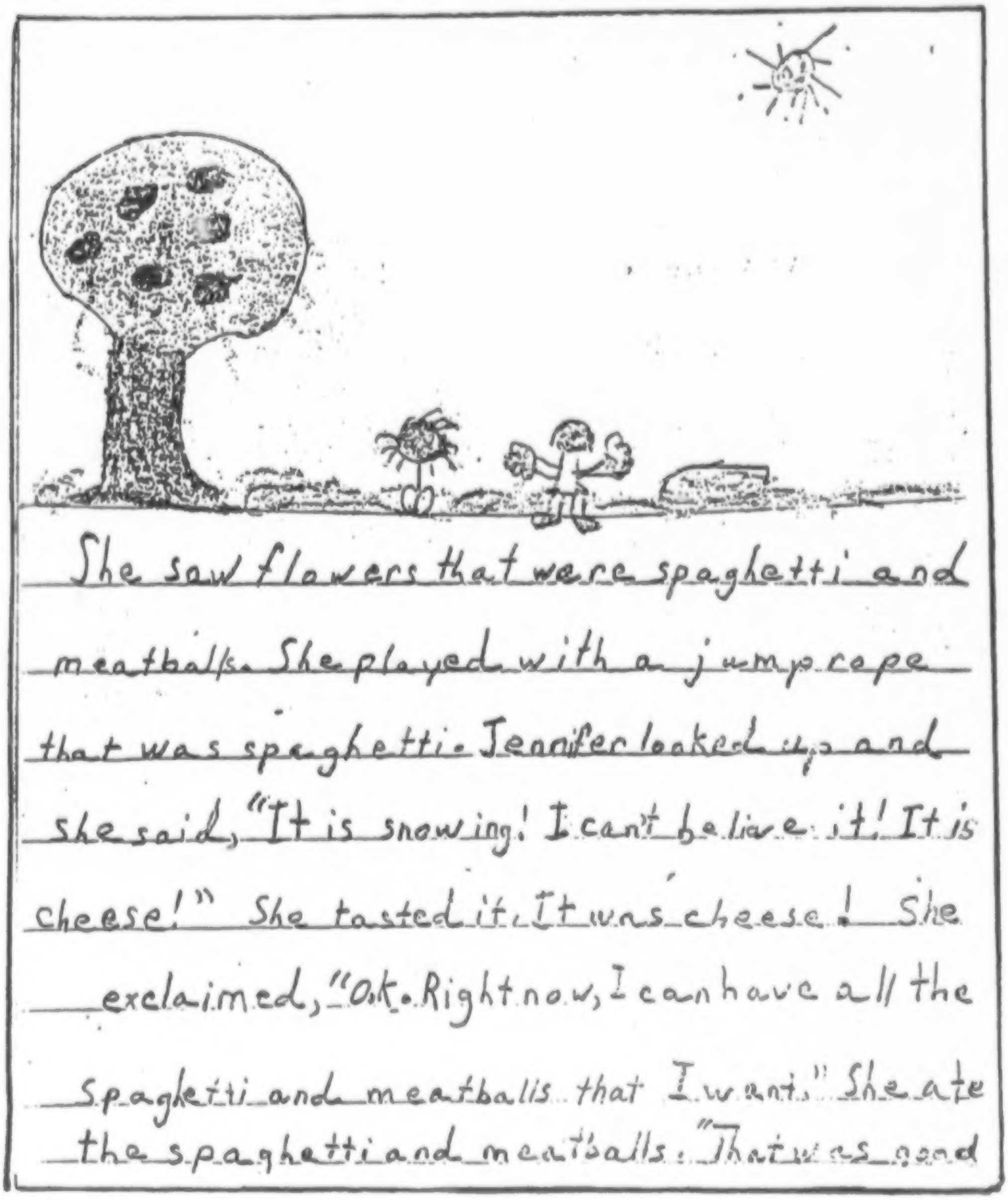
Teresa continued to add details as a result of conferences. These details were imaginative: "She looked on the ground and she saw green spaghetti that was grass....She played with a jump rope that was spaghetti....Jennifer looked up and she said, 'It is snowing! I can't believe it! It is cheese!'...She tasted it...It was cheese!'" In this final writing piece she included dialogue, humor, and imagination. What a long way from "The cat and bird is very good!"

At one point she was stuck on an ending. I told her to keep thinking about it and to try some different endings and see which she liked best. Two days later she came racing to school with a crumpled piece of paper in her hand. "Here is the ending!," she shouted. "I thought of it on the way home and wrote it down...I know just where to put it." She grabbed her folder and taped on the ending.

Teresa went on to make a hard cover book for her story (see Figure 8). She carefully illustrated it and included a section called 'About the Author' in which she wrote: "Teresa is 12 years old. She likes basketball, ice cream, school, and Miss Five. Teresa likes gym, writing, and reading."

I worried what was going to happen when she finished her book. All the other students had read their books to their first graders in front of the first grade class and my other fifth graders. Teresa still had not read any of her writing pieces to the class. But when I asked her if she would like to read it to her first grader alone or in front of the class, she surprised me

Figure 8. Spaghetti Land Story -- May (Teresa).



She saw flowers that were spaghetti and meatballs. She played with a jump rope that was spaghetti. Jennifer looked up, and she said, "It is snowing! I can't beliave it! It is cheese!" She tasted it. It was cheese! She exclaimed, "O.k. Right now, I can have all the spaghetti and meatballs that I want." She ate the spaghetti and meatballs. "That was good by saying, "I'll read it to the whole class because I love the ending."

She thought the ending was very funny because after spending a day playing with spaghetti jump ropes, looking at trees and flowers made out of spaghetti, and eating all the spaghetti she could eat, Jennifer arrived home to find out she was having spaghetti for dinner! This time Teresa was aware of the humor and appreciated it herself, often laughing as she read it to herself.

While Teresa took another risk, I sat in the back of the room praying that she would be able to read her story without embarrassment. She read it confidently and beamed when everyone clapped. I didn't hear the comments from her classmates about the parts they liked best. I sat marveling at the changes that had occurred in this child and wondering what had allowed them to take place.

Was it the environment that enabled Teresa to grow and change over time as a writer, a learner, a person? What part did I play in helping these changes occur? Seemingly my instructional approach helped her develop self-confidence and independence. It also provided her many opportunities to read and write and to see demonstrated and come to value a variety of strategies for effective communication. This environment gave her options and allowed her to take risks. There were expectations set for her and she developed some for herself. She was part of a community of learners and experienced the flow of ideas through reading, writing, listening, and talking.

For years Teresa had been isolated with an aide and attempted to learn by herself, practicing number facts and working in handwriting, spelling, and phonics books. This year she learned with and from others. She became aware of her ideas and her ideas were valued. She learned to express those ideas through art, discussion, simulation, manipulation, reading and writing.

Teresa's aide did not allow her to take risks. There was no opportunity for experimenting and exploring. The curriculum for the learning disabled has very specific skill-oriented goals for students like Teresa. The emphasis is on what the student can not do and what he or she does not know. It does not build on prior experience or abilities. It does not engage students in different strategies for learning. The curriculum for these special children -- these Teresas -- lets them be learning disabled, and perhaps keeps them disabled.

A comprehension-centered, supportive environment seems to let Teresa be a successful learner -- severely labeled perhaps, but not severely disabled. This type of environment builds on what she can do and respects her as an individual. It encourages ownership of ideas and responsibility for learning. From this sense of authority and control over her learning comes the independence that Teresa developed. In her final writing evaluation conference Teresa told me the best thing about her Harriet Tubman report and her book for her first grader was that, "...I did them myself."

Teresa taught me a lot this year. What I learned about how she learned profoundly affected my attitude about teaching and made me rethink my methods of dealing with different kinds of learners. Like Teresa, I needed time and space to evolve, examine, explore, and experiment with alternate strategies for learning. I developed as a teacher as Teresa developed as a student.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

In October of 1983 Indiana University received a federal contract (USDE #C-300-83-0130) to research reading comprehension with special education students. The first year was devoted to reviewing the literature. We began by reading reviews of reading comprehension research and used these reviews to generate a list of topics of interest to the field (schemata, inferencing, story structure etc.). This list was used to develop a tentative taxonomy for coding research studies. Next, we began a three pronged attack: locating relevant studies from 1974 -1984, coding the studies and revising the taxonomy as needed. A detailed discussion of our methodology and findings are reported in Volume I - Landscapes, A State of the Art Assessment of Reading Comprehension Research (Crismore, 1985).

During the second year, our task was to observe classroom practice. We were to gather information about the teaching of reading comprehension in 9 districts and/or special education cooperatives. Advanced Technology Incorported (ATI), an independent research corporation, was subcontracted to design the case study plan, identify appropriate sites and train research personnel. In addition, they contributed half of the personnel for the research teams and prepared a report synthesizing the findings across all nine sites.

Work on this task began in the spring of 1984. While Indiana University personnel were conducting a meta-analysis of research studies and preparing a nation-wide survey instrument (see Appendix A-1), ATI worked on the design of the field research. Their proposed plan was then presented to a National Advisory Panel in July. This panel, consisting of experts in the fields of reading, writing, research and special education, made extensive suggestions and ATI used the panel´s suggestions to revise their preliminary plan.

In the fall of 1985, ATI selected nine districts/cooperatives as research sites. To be consistent with proportions state-wide, eight cooperatives and one independent planning district were selected. In addition, selected LEA´s contained at least two classrooms which provided instruction to intermediate or junior high students labeled learning disabled or mildly mentally handicapped and whose teachers had been nominated as exemplary by the director of special education. The LEA´s were also in reasonable proximity to the research personnel. (See pgs. 41-49 in Volume III for a complete discussion of site selection and Appendix A-2 for a listing of sites, by criteria.)

ATI´s design called for a pilot round in December of 1984, ´cross-talks´ among the research personnel in January, and two additional observation rounds in February and March of 1985. (See pages 49-81 in Voume III for further explication of research design.)

Training sessions were held to prepare for the pilot round. The six researchers who would be involved (three each from IU and ATI) were given a Case Study Handbook and briefed on case-study methodology: field entry, interview techniques and questions, observational techniques, data analysis guidelines and report writing. This handbook, prepared by ATI expressly for the training of these researchers, included the following information: an instruction sheet for interviewers, probes for interviews with administrative and instructional personnnel, guides for observations, interviews, fieldnotes and site summaries, and a list of research issues that had been based, in part, on the taxonomy used in the literature review (see Appendices A-3, A-4, A-5, A-6, A-7, A-8 and A-9 for these documents.)

Thus trained, the researchers began the pilot round in December. This pilot round consisted of three two person teams (an IU professor or doctoral student paired with a staff member from ATI) who conducted these eight steps:

1. Contacted, by mail and telphone, the superintendent to obtain permission to do research in the LEA.
2. Contacted, by telephone, the director of special education to obtain names of exemplary teachers and to establish a tentative interview schedule.
3. Contacted, by telphone, the exemplary teachers to establish interview times.
4. Confirmed interview schedule with director and teachers.
5. Conducted entry interviews, following guidelines developed by ATI, with the superintendent, director of special education, classroom teachers and other personnel as necessary (building principals, for example). Took field notes during these interviews.
6. Immediately following the interview, translated the field notes into narrative forms. Made arrangements to have the interviewee read and comment on the extended field notes so as to clarify points, correct misconceptions and/or provide additional information.
7. Observed reading instruction in each classroom a minimum of three different days. Took field notes, gathered samples of materials in use and prepared thick descriptions of the classrooms observed.
8. Returned these notes to the teacher for confirmation/clarification, as above.

Three sites had been selected for the pilot, and a total of nine classrooms were observed during this time. Each classroom was observed three times. (See Appendices A-10.1 and A-10.2 for an overview of data collection.)

In January, the research teams met again with personnel from ATI to discuss preliminary findings across all nine sites and to make modifications, as necessary, to the research plan. Additional personnel were also trained at this time.

Observational round two began in February of 1985 and followed the steps outlined above with the exception that researchers working in the pilot sites began with step 7. In round two, twenty new classrooms were visited three times each and the nine pilot clasrooms were re-visited three times. Round three, which took place in March, involved three more observations. Thus, classrooms involved in the pilot sites were visited a total of nine times and other classrooms, a total of six (See Appendix 11 for a listing of all twenty nine classrooms, by criteria).

This completed the observational cycle. The researchers then met as teams to a)prepare a case study report of each district/cooperative and b)synthesize their findings across all nine research issues. The IU member of the research team provided the data for these reports which were subsequently drafted by ATI personnel. ATI then synthesized these reports across all nine sites. (See Volume III, pgs. 82-270 for their synthesis and pages 57-59 and 67-75 for a discussion of their methodology of data analysis.)

Indiana University, meanwhile, prepared this volume as their synthesis of the observational research. IU´s report focuses on emergent and theoretical issues, and utilizes thick description; while ATI´s report uses a case study format and focuses on the nine a priori research issues.

Appendix A-1 : Nationwide Survey

READING INSTRUCTION: AN ASSESSMENT OF CURRENT PRACTICES

USOE Grant:
Research to Improve Reading Comprehension
of Handicapped Students
Indiana University, 1983-1985

1. Present teaching position
   _____ regular classroom teacher
   _____ regular classroom teacher with mainstreamed students
   _____ self-contained special ed teacher
   _____ resource room teacher

2. How many students do you teach each day? _____
   Each class (size)? _____

3. What is the chronological age of your students?
   _____ preschool
   _____ 6-9 years - Primary
   _____ 10-12 years - Intermediate
   _____ 13-16 years - Jr. High
   _____ 17-19 years - Secondary
   _____ 20+ years - Adult

4. Indicate the number of your students who are identified as follows:
   _____ MiMH or MoMH/EMR
   _____ LD
   _____ ED/BD
   _____ HI
   _____ Multicategorical
   _____ Other (specify) ______________________________
   ____

5. What is the approximate number of minutes per day that the typical student spends in READING oor reading instruction in your classroom?

6. What percentage of the time spent reading is free-reading (selected by the student)? _____%

   What percentage of the time is directed by the teacher? _____%

   Of this directed reading time, what percentage is devoted to reading comprehension? _____%

7. What percentage of the time spent on directed reading activities is structured as:
   _____% individual?
   _____% small group?
   _____% large group?

8. Who determines the set reading curriculum in your class?
   _____ classroom teacher
   _____ classroom and special education teachers
   _____ commercial program adopted by school
   _____ school curriculum guide
   _____ state curriculum guide
   _____ other (specify) ________________________________
   ____
   _____ not applicable

9. Which basal reading series, if any, do you use?
   _____ Ginn
   _____ Harcourt, Brace
   _____ Harper & Row
   _____ Holt
   _____ Houghton Mifflin
   _____ Lippincott
   _____ Macmillan
   _____ Merrill Linguistic
   _____ Scott, Foresman
   _____ other (specify)__________
   _____ not applicable

10. How do you use a basal series?
   _____ as the core of my reading program
   _____ as an important component of the reading program
   _____ as supplementary materials for the reading program
   _____ other (describe) ________________________________
   _____ not applicable

11. How frequently do you use the following types of materials in your reading lessons?

never	rarely	monthly	weekly	daily
1	2	3	4	5

   _____ learner-made (language experience)
   _____ teacher-made
   _____ commercial "reading" programs (basals, SRA, etc.)
   _____ library books
   _____ popular magazines (newspapers, posters, etc.)
   _____ computer software
   _____ audiovisual aids

12. How frequently do you use the following types of texts?

never	rarely	monthly	weekly	daily
1	2	3	4	5

_____ fiction (stories, poetry, narrative)
_____ non-fiction (content area texts)

13. Please fill in the percentage of time the majority of your students spend working on these various levels of language:

_____% letters and letter clusters
_____% words
_____% clauses or phrases
_____% sentences
_____% partial or very short texts (paragraphs or multiple paragraphs)
_____% complete text (complete stories, books)

14. Please check off how frequently you present lessons in the following areas of reading comprehension.

never	rarely	monthly	weekly	daily
1	2	3	4	5

a. Recall facts, monitor on-line meaning and identify main ideas	1	2	3	4	5
b. Vocabulary (word meanings)	1	2	3	4	5
c. Identify text structures (sequencing story elements, identifying plot, main character, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
d. Inferencing (drawing conclusions, making generalizations, cause and effect, point of view)	1	2	3	4	5
e. Develop strategies for comprehension (self-monitoring, self-correction, looking back)	1	2	3	4	5
f. Apply and maintain old skills on new materials	1	2	3	4	5
g. Critical reading (fact from opinion, compare and contrast)	1	2	3	4	5

h. Prediction (hypothesize, predicting outcomes, problem-solving)	1	2	3	4	5
i. Summarizing (making or creating a "gist" statement, condensing, chunking, reorganizing information)	1	2	3	4	5
j. Recasting knowledge (moving to another form of expression such as art, creative dramatics, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
k. Constructing new knowledge (constructing relationships between text and experience [figurative language, analogy, metaphor])	1	2	3	4	5

15. Please check and describe which methods you use to assess students' progress in reading, as well as how frequently you use each method.

never	rarely	monthly	weekly	daily
1	2	3	4	5

a. Phonics test (name) ________________________	1	2	3	4	5
b. Vocabulary, word recognition, other word analysis tests (including structural analysis)	1	2	3	4	5
c. Reading rate (words per minute)	1	2	3	4	5
d. Reading comprehension questions	1	2	3	4	5
e. Cloze tests (fill in deleted words in sentences)	1	2	3	4	5
f. Oral reading (miscue analysis, informal reading inventory)	1	2	3	4	5
g. Retelling	1	2	3	4	5
h. Standardized reading achievement test (name) ______________________________	1	2	3	4	5
i. Attitude toward reading test (name)________________________	1	2	3	4	5

j. Self-concept test (name) 1 2 3 4 5

____

k. Readiness test (name) 1 2 3 4 5

____

l. Spelling test (name) 1 2 3 4 5

____

m. Writing samples test (name) 1 2 3 4 5

____

n. Other (please describe) 1 2 3 4 5

____

____

16. Of the major aspects of reading comprehension listed below that are currently being addressed by researchers, check five (5) which you personally see as having the greatest impact on the improvement of reading comprehension.

_____ having children, right from the start, encounter whole, meaningful texts

_____ using instructional materials in which new concepts are introduced gradually, repeated frequently, and explained concretely

_____ having children, right from the start, encounter content area materials

_____ using instructional materials which highlight the organizational structures of texts

_____ using illustrations more effectively to facilitate comprehension

_____ developing materials and procedures which help build background knowledge of content

_____ using instructional procedures which help students understand that stories are organized and formatted differently from content-area materials, and vice versa

_____ helping students develop positive attitudes toward reading

_____ helping students develop more effective reading strategies, and to apply these, as well as other strategies, to new situations

_____ helping students use self-corrective and self-monitoring strategies

_____ developing lesson frames that teachers might use before, during and after reading activities to increase students' involvement in the process

_____ helping teachers understand the influence of their beliefs, expectancies and behaviors on the beliefs, expectancies and behaviors of their students

_____ developing procedures to encourage children to experience and value reading as a lived-through experience

_____ developing materials and procedures which consider the students' cultural background in order to facilitate the making of conceptual links

_____ helping students develop strategies to recall facts, monitor on-line meaning, and identify main ideas

_____ helping students develop strategies to learn new vocabulary words more effectively

_____ helping students develop strategies to draw conclusions, make generalizations, and in general improve their inferencing abilities

_____ helping students develop strategies which successful readers use to summarize written information

_____ developing instructional strategies which facilitate the generative nature of reading by encouraging the use of metaphor, analogy, and moves to alternate communication systems (i.e. art, drama, and other forms of expression)

Thank you so much for your cooperation in filling out this form. Your feedback will be of great value. Please return this form as soon as you can to:

Dr. Pamela R. Terry
Center for Reading and Language Studies
Indiana University
2805 East 10th Street
Bloomington, Indiana 47405

Appendix A:2 : Sites, by Criteria

SITE	ORGANIZATIONAL FEATURE	SETTING	HANDICAPPING CONDITION				# OF CLASSROOMS	GRADE LEVEL			# OF TEACHERS	# OF ADMINISTRATORS
			LD	MiMH	EH	MULTI		EL.	INT.	SEC.		
A	Cooperative	SMSA-suburban	2	2			4	2	2		4	1
B	Independent	SMSA-urban/suburban	2	2	1		5	2	2		5	11
C	Cooperative	SMSA-suburban/urban	1			1	4					1
D	Cooperative	Rural/suburban	1	2	1		4	2	3		5	1
E	Cooperative	SMSA-urban	2	2			4	2	2		4	1
F	Cooperative	SMSA-urban		2			2	1	1		2	3
G	Cooperative	SMSA-urban	1			1	2	2			2	1
H	Cooperative	Rural-small places				3	3	1	1	1	3	2
I	Cooperative	SMSA-suburban	1				1				1	1

SMSA - Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area

Appendix A:3 : Administrative Personnel Protocol

Entry Interview: Administrative Personnel

(Note the Probe emphasis for this respondent type)

*1. Would you give me a little background about yourself on how you got involved with programs for handicapped students and can you tell me a little about the nature of your present administrative responsibilities?

Possible Probes
- o Prior training (if relevant, include inservice & professional development)
- o Degrees/certifications held
- o Experience administering regular and special education programs--past and present
- o Position and role responsibilities
- o History of LEA Special Education Program (see Site Guide)
- o Organization of Special Education Program Reading program adapted from a particular model? (see Site Guide)

2. Would you describe what your teachers typically do in teaching reading comprehension to handicapped students? For example, do they tend to use a specific approach or a mixture of approaches?

a. Curriculum Probes
- o Basal Series? Specific Curriculum?
- o Which students get the approach? IEP?
- o Types of Texts and Materials used
- o Levels of Language Structure; variation by student?

b. Instructional Grouping & Scheduling Probes
- o Allocated time by day/week; scheduling decisions; who decides?
- o Grouping vs. independent vs. whole class Who teaches what?
- o If grouping: size? composition?

*c. Assessment and Program Development Probes
- o How is student progress monitored? (formal and informal) Methods used? Model? (formal and informal)
- o Student, class, district level?
- o How is assessment data used?
- o How do staff coordinate within the program and with outside resources?
- o Inservice and professional development
- o How has the special education reading program(s) been developed and improved over the years?

3. Would you describe why things are done the way they are? For example, why do you use ________? Did you or someone else make that choice?

a. Curriculum Probes
   - o Basis for certain types of students receiving a particular approach
   - o Basis for use of particular texts/ materials

b. Grouping/Scheduling Probes
   - o Basis of grouping strategies
   - o Basis for staff assignments

*c. Assessment Probes (Formal and Informal)
   - o Basis for choice of assessment model
   - o Basis for choice of assessment methods
   - o Basis of development/improvement strategy
   - o Basis of coordination strategies

*4. Would you describe for me what benefits the students obtain from their reading instruction?

Probes regarding effective instruction
   - o What is important in effectively teaching these skills? What's most important? (Prioritize)
   - o Touch on Reader, Text, Task, and Processing Factors
   - o Do handicapped students require different teaching approaches than nonhandicapped students? If so, why?
   - o What has most influenced your beliefs about effective reading instruction? (e.g. inservice and professional development)
   - o Where do you see the greatest need to improve handicapped students' reading abilities? How can this best be achieved?
   - o Do you feel that you operate a successful reading program for handicapped students? Why? What's accounted for your success (or lack of success)?
   - o What kinds of additional things need to be accomplished to improve your program?

*5. Who else should I talk with (individuals, groups, etc.) that would have a similar point of view on those things we have discussed? Who would have a different point of view?

Further Probes:
   - o What kinds of documents and records could I look at that would be helpful to understanding some of those things we've talked about?

  - Which particular *settings* would be most helpful to observe in understanding some of those things we've talked about?
  - Are there any particular *issues* or past *events* that I should be aware of which would help me understand better what we've talked about?
- Is there anything else which would be important for us to know that we have not discussed yet?

Appendix A-4: Instructional Personnel Protocol

Entry Interview: Instructional Personnel

(Note the Probe emphasis for this respondent type)

*1. Would you give me a little background about yourself on how you got into (involved with) teaching handicapped students and can you tell me a little about the nature of your present instructional situation?

a. Background Probes
  - Prior training (if relevant, include in-service and professional development)
  - Degrees and certifications held
  - Experience teaching in regular and special education

b. Present Situation Probes
  - Position and Role Responsibilities
  - Types of students (HDCP type and reg. ed; ages; characteristic behaviors)
  - Case Load (# classes and students per class)

*2. Would you describe what you typically do with your students in teaching reading comprehension? For example, how would you describe your approach to teaching reading comprehension? Do you use a specific approach or a mixture of approaches?

a. Curriculum Probes
  - Basal Series? Specific Curriculum?
  - Which students get the approach? IEP?
  - Types of Texts and Materials used
  - Levels of Language Structure; variation by student?

b. Instructional Grouping & Scheduling Probes
  - Allocated time by day/week; scheduling decisions; who decides?
  - Grouping vs. independent vs. whole class Who teaches what?
  - If grouping: size? composition?

c. Assessment Probes (Formal and Informal)
  - How is student progress monitored? Methods used? Model?
  - Student, class, district level?
  - How is assessment data used?

*3. Would you describe why things are done the way they are? For example, why do you use ________ approach? Did you or someone else make that choice?

a. Curriculum Probes
  - Basis for certain types of students

receiving a particular approach
- o Basis for use of particular texts/ materials

b. Grouping/Scheduling Probes
- o Basis of grouping strategies
- o Basis for staff assignments

c. Assessment Probes
- o Basis for choice of assessment model
- o Basis for choice of assessment methods

4. Aside from those staff previously mentioned (adjust to responses from 2 and 3), who coordinates with you in helping you to get your job done? For example, is there a Program Coordinator that you work with? (If so. . .) how do you work with this person?

If applicable, possible probes:
- o IEP planning and implementation
- o Staff coordination within program
- o Staff coordination with outside resources
- o Inservice and professional development

*5. Would you describe for me what benefits the students obtain from their instruction?

Probes regarding effective instruction:
- o What is important in effectively teaching these skills? What's most important? (Prioritize)
- o Touch on Reader, Text, Task, and Processing Factors
- o Do handicapped students require different teaching approaches than nonhandicapped students? If so, why?
- o What has most influenced your beliefs about effective reading instruction? (e.g. Inservice, Professional Development)
- o Where do you see the greatest need to improve handicapped students' reading abilities? How can this best be achieved?
- o Do you feel that you operate a successful reading program for handicapped students? Why? What's accounted for your success (or lack of success)?
- o What kinds of additional things need to be accomplished to improve your program?

6. Who else should I talk with (individuals, groups, etc.) that would have a similar point of view on those things we have discussed? Who would have a different point of view?

Further Probes:
- o What kinds of documents and records

could I look at that would be helpful to understanding some of those things we've talked about?

- Which particular *settings* would be most helpful to observe in understanding some of those things we've talked about?
- Are there any particular *issues* or past *events* that I should be aware of which would help me understand better what we've talked about?
- Is there anything else which would be important for us to know that we have not discussed yet?

Appendix A-5: Instructions to Interviewers

INSTRUCTIONS TO INTERVIEWERS

The attached interview guides represent a compilation of the major questions for each respondent in our sample. Each guide has been designated for either instructional or administrative personnel.

Those questions marked with an asterisk (*) are the essential questions for a particular respondent type. The important thing to remember is that you might not have enough time in some cases to cover all questions in a single interview, but at least you will be able to address the essential ones. In such cases, you may have to obtain lower priority information at another time through a different interview.

The major purposes of these guides are to facilitate ease of interviewing and related data collection on-site. If for any reason you need to depart from this semi-structured approach, please feel free to do so, remembering to optimize validity and reliability (refer to training documents and related points in the Case Study Plan). In the end, good data on a few key questions are better than poor data on a great many questions. As a minimum, we need good data on the essential (*) questions. But we also need to know any other opinions (emergent concerns/issues) that the respondent feels are important for us to know; at the very least, offer the respondent an opportunity to introduce new issues by using the final probe at the end of each interview protocol.

The types of respondent anticipated for the Instructional Personnel Interview are as follows; the associated codes may be useful in facilitating note taking:

- RCT = Regular Classroom Teacher
- RCT/MS = Regular Classroom Teacher with Mainstreamed Students
- SC/SET = Self Contained Special Education Teacher
- RRT = Resource Room Teacher
- TA = Teacher Aide

The types of respondents anticipated for the Administrative Personnel Interview are as follows; the associated codes may be useful in facilitating note taking:

- DS = District Superintendent
- PDA = Planning District Administrator
- BP - Building Principal
- CAS = Central Administration Specialist (e.g. Curriculum Coordinator)

You will need to adjust the style of interviewing and the order of questions asked to a given respondent. Our purposes here is to achieve a natural conversation. You will be recording the interview in narrative fashion using field notes. During the interview, these field notes may take on an abbreviated, "skeletal" form; you will have to embellish and elaborate your field notes in most cases subsequent to the interview.

You will note that the probe emphasis is different for the two types of respondents.

Appendix A-6: Classroom Observation Guide

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION GUIDE

INSTRUCTIONS TO OBSERVERS

We will not be using a "time-sampling" approach to systematic observation; rather, we will be using what we will call a "gist-sampling" approach by focusing on molar-level episode transactions. The classroom observation system is designed for one fieldworker per classroom. We would like you to adhere to the following procedures:

1. Describe the instruction context prior to observing and the reasons for your selection of the particular setting(s) to be observed. Make sure you attend to the third and sixth categories from the site visit guide.

2. Draw a sociogram of those student-teacher-classroom transaction unit combinations that you will be observing within the setting. Label the first sociogram as "A."

3. Begin observing when you see the class making a transition to the reading instruction period. (e.g. teacher says "Take out your reading books, boys and girls"; aide flashes lights; student passes out ditto sheets; etc.). Note the start-time on the top-left of the sociogram.

4. Use the following codes to capture the gist of the episode for each transaction unit being observed. Be systematic and consistent in moving from one transaction unit to the next. Observe each such unit until you have captured the gist of what is going on.

The codes are:
(a) TDG: Teacher-Directed Group*
(b) ISW: Independent Seat Work
(c) IG: Independent Group Work
(d) TISW: Individual Seat Work with Teacher Interaction
(e) IT: Individualized tutoring (directed by a teacher as defined in code a)
(f) NE: Non-Engaged; the students should be working under codes a, b, c, or d but are not
(g) ET (__): Episode Terminated with the participants physically moving to and joining a different group under codes a-e. Note the code transitions in parenthesis and use "hash marks" (broken line) to draw this coded box in the sociogram.

5. Briefly describe the interaction taking place for each transaction unit to support and elaborate upon your coding decision; do this below the sociogram as a series of gist statements. Pay particular attention to research issues 1.4, 2.2 to 2.5, 3.1 to 3.4, 4.3 to 4.5, and 5.1 to 5.5.** Note any

patterns that appear to influence all of the transaction units by using a "Gestalt Gist."

6. Once you have completed coding and "gisting" the sociogram, note the "stop time" of the episode and write it opposite the start-time at the top-right of the sociogram.

7. Recycle through steps 2-6. Each subsequent cycle requires a new sociogram and letter designation if significant transaction changes have occurred (i.e. code changes); otherwise, simply update the referenced sociogram with gist statements describing the episode.

8. Stop observing when you see the class making a transition from reading instruction to a new and different activity (e.g. Teacher says "Put your books away, boys and girls"; aide flashes lights; students begin walking to a different area of the classroom; etc.)

---

*Teacher: certified teacher, adult or student aide
Group: 2 or more students

**Research Issues of Note

1. Nature and range of curriculum approaches
    - 1.4 Who receives rdg. comp. instruction and on what basis?

2. Rdg. comp. curriculum: characteristics, properties, levels
    - 2.2 Types of materials
    - 2.3 Types of texts
    - 2.4 Rdg. comp. and IEP
    - 2.5 Language structure

3. Instruction techniques and strategies
    - 3.4 Student processing strategies

4. Academic learning time
    - 4.3 Free rdg. vs. teacher directed
    - 4.4 Proportion of rdg. comp.
    - 4.5 Engaged interactive vs. engaged noninteractive vs. nonengaged

5. Grouping practices
    - 5.1 Individual vs. small group vs. whole class
    - 5.2 Basis for grouping
    - 5.3 Size and composition
    - 5.4 Who teaches the group?
    - 5.5 Interaction: between students and with adults

Appendix A-7: Guidelines for Writing Fieldnotes

The bulk of field reports will be concerned with descriptive, empirically observable data. Researcher inferences and interpretatior are separated from the descriptive body of writing by observer comment paragraphs (O.C.). These two kinds of field notes are discussed below.

I. Points to address under NARRATIVE DESCRIPTION (low-inference descriptors)

- A. Portraits of the Participants: Description of people in the setting include physical appearance, dress, mannerism, and style of interaction. Relevant primarily to first wave of site visits; subsequent fieldnotes require only updating or changes.
- B. Reconstruction of Dialogue: Summaries of observed verbal behavior, quotable quotes, interview notes, and nonverbal context cues.
- C. Description of the Physical Setting: Sketches of the classroom layout, sociograms, etc.
- D. Accounts of Particular Events: Define the event; who was involved, in what manner, and the nature of the action. (Remember to document factors relevant to maintaining an "audit trail.")
- E. Depiction of Activities: Detailed descriptions of behavioral sequences, stated positively and with minimal dependence on inference.

II. Points to address under OBSERVER COMMENTS (high-inference interpretation)

- A. Analytic Interpretation: What are you learning, what is your interpretation of the data, what themes and patterns seem to be emerging, which data seem connected, what gaps exist in the data, etc. Longer and comprehensive analytic reflections will take the form of Issue Memos.
- B. Points of Clarification: Correcting errors of reporting and interpretation, revising previously unclear points, offering explanations for data previously not well understood.
- C. Reflections on Method*: Documenting, supporting, and evaluating decisions on data collection which shape the emerging research design. Comments on rapport building, difficulties, and proposed solutions. For

incorporation not only in site reports but also to write a methodological account in the final reports.

D. Reflections on Ethical Dilemmas*: Documenting concerns about field relations and proposed solutions.

E. Reflections on Observer's Behavior and frame-of Mind*: Documentation of assumptions, preconceptions, and biases which influence data collections and interpretation.

* From field diary

Appendix A-8: Site Summary Reporting Guidelines

I. Converting Fieldnotes to the Site Case Study Report: Preliminary Checklist for Data Quality Control

A. Writing the Interview and Observation Summary Reports

- Are fieldnotes complete? Were you able to cover all relevant topics on the interview guide? Was the observation representative/typical of the classroom and did you follow the observation guide?

- Have you elaborated your fieldnotes?

- Have you adhered to the guidelines for writing the interview and observation reports?

B. Writing the Site Case Study Report

- Have you completed all scheduled within-team debriefings?

- Have all of the team's observation and interview reports been written?

- Have you used the Constant Comparative Method to analyze the data in your interview and observation reports? Your data should be coded and theoretical memos should be written.

- Are copies of the following on-file at ATI (or being sent to):

  a. The team's typed, elaborated fieldnotes; the team's handwritten, original raw fieldnotes; and documents collected on onsite.
  b. Observation and Interview Reports
  c. Debriefing tapes

- If your answers to all of the above are "yes," then proceed with your site summary report. If andy of your answers are "no," then complete the checklist satisfactorily before proceeding further.

II. Case study Report Format

A. Site Setting and Background: "thick description" from question #1 of the entry interviews

B. Advanced Organizer: Research issues #1-9. Here, we want descriptive information to the extent possible.

Cover each topical issue in order (if that makes sense to you and the nature of your data) based on the descriptive aspects of your fieldnotes.

C. Emergent Themes: New issue topics added beyond our initial advance organizers. Again, descriptive data. But see Section III below.

D. Conclusions/Synthesis: Inferences from sections B & C above. Incorporate section A data above for contextual and valuational interpretations.

E. Methodology: QADF attachment.

III. Rules of Inclusion/Exclusion: Adhere to the following guidelines as applicable.

A. Triangulation across at least two corroborating data sources (methods and/or respondents)

B. Explanatory constructs must be grounded in participant-induced schemes (i.e. member checks)

C. Data must adhere to how the study was bounded (i.e. content delimitation in sampling parameters)

D. Data must be explicable from the QADF (i.e. trackable and defensible a la our Audit Trail)

E. Both descriptive and inferential portrayals reflect within-team consensus. Data lacking consensus should be explicated on the QADF and investigated further. However, dissenting opinions may be included in the report if both team members agree to its inclusion; the grounds for inclusion of "minority reports" should be explicated.

F. Data must relate to the Advance Organizers, or relationships among them. Emergent themes must be justified in relationship to their power for enlightening the advance organizers.

G. Outliers: Data that doesn't fit patterns; anomalies; atypical occurences. Justify the significance and relevance of the "outlier."

H. Thick Description should be used as much as possible. Quote from the data (e.g. verbatim respondent statements) to illustrate and support your points.

IV. Team Responsibilities

A. ATI person is team leader.

B. Team leader has the responsibility for seeing that the report is completed.

C. Team leader is responsible for ensuring that the site data are on file at ATI and that the file is maintained in "up-to-date" status.

D. Team leader is responsible for completing the QADF for the team's site.

Appendix A-9: Research Issues and Suggested Subissues

1. The nature and range of curriculum approaches currently used for teaching reading comprehension to handicapped students.

   1.1 Is comprehension actually taught? Is some other aspect of reading taught in the name of comprehension? How does the respondent describe the approach used to teach reading comprehension?

   1.2 Is a specific approach used or is there a mix of approaches used? Which? (e.g. Basal, language experience, individualized reading, etc.)

   1.3 On what basis does the respondent justify the approach used? If an eclectic approach is used, how is this operationalized and on what grounds are claims made for its justification? Who determines the choice of the approach?

   1.4 Which kinds of students receive reading comprehension instruction? Do certain kinds of students not receive instruction in reading comprehension? What is the basis on which certain students receive reading comprehension instruction?

2. The characteristics, properties, and levels of the curriculum used for reading comprehension instruction.

   2.1 Which basal reading series is used by the teacher is any? How is the basal series used? (e.g. core curriculum, as another component, as a supplement, etc.) To what extent and under what conditions is a basal used?

   2.2 What types of materials are used in reading lessons? (e.g. teacher made, learner made, commerical publisher, library, popular magazines, computer software, AV aids, etc.). How, to what extent and under what conditions?

   2.3 What types of texts are used? (i.e. fiction vs. nonfiction). How, to what extent, and under what conditions?

   2.4 Is reading comprehension addressed by the students' IEP? If so, how is it implemented and with what results? If not, why not?

2.5 Which levels of language structure are reflected in the curriculum-in-use? (i.e. letters and letter clusters; words; clauses and phrases; sentences; paragraphs; complete stories; books.) How do these levels vary by type of student? How much progression over levels is evident as the academic year progresses?

3. Instructional techniques and strategies currently in use by teachers of handicapped students for promoting reading comprehension.

3.1 How do instructional strategies accomodate text factors? How, to what extent, and under what conditions do teachers use (a) whole word strategies; (b) DRL strategies; (c) application strategies; (d) study skill strategies; and (e) illustrations to support text?

3.2 How do instructional strategies accomodate reader factors? How, to what extent, and under what condition do teachers (a) develop materials and procedures which help build background knowledge of content; (b) help children understand different purposes for reading; (c) help students develop positive attitudes toward reading; (d) help students apply reading strategies to new situations; and (e) help students' use of self-monitoring strategies.

3.3 How do instructional strategies accomodate task factors? How, to what extend, and under what conditions do teachers (a) develop structured lesson plans; (b) evidence understanding that their expectations, beliefs and instructional strategies affect student expectations, beliefs, and reading behavior; (c) capitalize on the social nature of the classroom to promote collaboration and peer support for reading; and (d) build a reading program which respects and makes connection with the cultural backgrounds of students.

3.4 How do instructional techniques address student processing strategies? How, to what extent, and under what conditions do teachers help students develop strategies to (a) recall facts and identify main ideas; (b) learn new vocabulary words; (c) identify text structures; (d) improve inferencing abilities; (e) promote critical reading; (f) promote prediction skills; (g) summarize written material; (h) recast knowledge; and (i) construct new knowledge.

4. Academic learning time

4.1 Who determines the time allocation--state or local control?

4.2 What is the typical allocation of time over the week for reading instruction?

4.3 What proportion of the allocated time is devoted to free reading vs. teacher directed instruction?

4.4 Of the directed instruction time, what proportion is devoted to reading comprehension?

4.5 What proportion of the time devoted to reading instruction (and comprehension instruction) can be characterized as engaged interactive vs. engaged noninteractive vs. nonengaged?

5. The nature of grouping practices

5.1 What proportion of directed instruction is structured as individual work vs. small group work vs. whole class instruction?

5.2 What is the basis of grouping strategies as a function of handicapping condition, skill level, learning sytle, etc.?

5.3 How big are the groups and what are their compositions?

5.4 Who teaches the reading group(s)?

5.5 What is the nature of interaction between students and with adults within the reading groups?

6. The nature of assessment/evaluation practices

6.1 At what level(s) does evaluation activity take place (i.e. student level, classroom level, district program level)?

6.2 Describe the methods used to assess students' progress in reading. Which methods are used?

6.3 Is a particular model of evaluation used? Which? Describe how evaluation is conducted.

6.4 How is evaluation information used?

7. The nature of program development activities

7.1 At what level(s) does program development activity take place (student, classroom, district program)? What is the nature of these program development activities? How are they accomplished?

7.2 What evidence is there that LEA personnel do, in fact, attempt to improve reading comprehension practices for handicapped students? How is such school improvement accomplished?

8. The degree to which a reading program exists for the handicapped and operates at a level larger than an IEP.

8.1 Is there a reading program plan larger in scope than an IEP?

8.2 If so, to what extent is there consistency between the program plan and (a) operating specifications; (b) assignment of staff responsibilities; and (c) actual implementation? Is there a "feedback loop" to refine operating specifications, staff assignments, and program implementation (i.e. is "Discrepancy" information used and if so, how?)

8.3 How do staff coordinate within the program and with outside resources? Does this happen by intent by chance?

8.4 What evidence is there of the merit of the program plan? In practice, what evidence is there of the worth of the program plan?

8.5 Is the program plan adapted from a particular model?

9. Beliefs regarding effective reading comprehension instruction

9.1 What are the beliefs of LEA personnel regarding effective instruction for handicapped students in the area of reading comprehension? What is most important?

9.2 How do these beliefs address reader factors, text factors, task factors, and processing strategies?

9.3 What has most influenced LEA personnel in their beliefs about effective reading comprehension practices (e.g. personal teaching experience, college training, other teachers and administrators, professional development opportunities, personal reading, etc.)?

9.4 Do handicapped students require different materials and teaching approaches than non-handicapped students? Why? Under what conditions?

9.5 Where do LEA personnel see the greatest potential for improving children's comprehension abilities as a result of changes in current practices (e.g. policy at state, district, or building level; training of instructional staff; curriculum approaches and materials; class size; targetting of specific student groups; parent involvement; etc.)?

Appendix A-10.1 Data Collection Activity Chart

I. General Overview

A. Entry Interviews: 1. Superintendent (Protocol Visit) 2. Ass't Superintendent (Protocol Visit) 3. Special Education Director (Depth Interview) 4. Primary Special Education Teacher (Depth Interview) 5. Jr. HS Special Education Teacher (Depth Interview) 6. SR. HS Special Education Teacher (Depth Interview) B. Informal Observation 1. Classrooms 2. School Sites 3. Document Collection C. Team Debriefing	A. Classroom Observation O_1 (A1) O_2 (B1) O_{12}(C1) B. Informal Interviews C. Team Debriefing	A. Classroom Observation O_1 (A2) O_2 (B2) O_{12} (C2) B. Exit Interviews C. Team Debriefing

II. Schedule of Entry Interviews

10:00-10:15 AM		Assistant Superintendent
10:15-11:15 AM		Special Education Director
11:30-12:30		Primary Special Education Teacher
11:30-12:30		Jr. HS Special Education Teacher
12:30- 1:30	LUNCH	(Local Foraging at Team's Discretion)
1:30- 2:30		Sr. HS Special Education Teacher
2:30- ?		Superintendent
	Informal Observation	
	Team Debriefing	

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Appendix A-10.2

ON-SITE SEQUENCE OF ACTIVITIES: PILOT STUDY

DAY ONE

(a) Formal entry and background interviews with administrators, classroom teachers, and resource teachers; conduct data source inventory to ensure coverage of research issues; establish/confirm schedule for data collection activities for days two and three, and make necessary modifications/arrangements

(b) Observation of the school site, classroom, the local context, and collection of background documents

(c) Team debriefing

DAY TWO

(a) Classroom observations, collection of relevant documents, and informal interviews as appropriate

(b) Team debriefing

DAY THREE

(a) Class observations, collection of relevant documents, and informal interviews as appropriate

(b) Exit interviews

(c) Team debriefing

(d) Field team exit

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Appendix A-11:
SITE SAMPLING OF HANDICAPPING CONDITION BY PROGRAM LEVEL

PROGRAM LEVEL		HANDICAPPING CONDITION					
		LD	MiMH	EH	MULT.	TOTAL	
A	EL.	1	1			2	4
	INT.						
	SEC.*	1	1			2	
B	EL.	1	1			2	5
	INT.			1		1	
	SEC.	1	1			2	
C.	EL.	2	1			3	4
	INT.				1	1	
	SEC.						
D.	EL.	1	1			2	4
	INT.						
	SEC.		1	1		2	
E.	EL.	1	1			2	4
	INT.	1	1			2	
	SEC.						
F.	EL.		1			1	2
	INT.						
	SEC.		1			1	
G.	EL.	1		1		2	2
	INT.						
	SEC.						
H.	EL.				1	1	3
	INT.						
	SEC.				2	2	
I.	EL.	1				1	1
	INT.						
	SEC.						
	TOTALS	11	11	3	4	29	

* SEC. includes both junior high and secondary personnel.

APPENDIX B: MATERIALS TAXONOMY

General Characteristics of the Materials

- Origin
  - Publisher
  - Teacher
  - Student
  - Others

- Selection Decision
  - District/Cooperative
  - Classroom teacher
  - Students

- Implicit/Explicit Learning Theory
  - Mastery
  - Schema
  - Multi-sensory
  - Modeling
  - Undetermined

- Material Objectives
  - Cognitive Skills
  - Learning Skills (metacognitive)
  - Subject Matter Skills
  - Attitude/Values Development
  - Communication Skills/Pragmatics
  - Reading/Writing As Learning Tools
  - Readiness
  - Socialization
  - Instruction
  - Evaluation/Diagnosis

- Material Orientation/Dominant Focus
  - Subskills
  - Wholistic, Integrative Skills
  - Decoding
  - Vocabulary/Concept Development
  - Comprehension/Meaning (sentence/or text)
  - Composition
  - Visual Literacy (comprehension/production)
  - Literature/Closed/Controlled/Structured
  - Open/Undetermined

Range of Materials

- Patterns of Material Use
  - Teacher-Directed (teacher to student)
  - Student Undirected (self to self)
  - Student Directed (student to student)
  - Social Interaction (participation)

- Point of View
  - First
  - Second
  - Interpersonal (First/second)
  - Third

- Formulaic
- Original
- Questions
  - Real
  - Rhetorical
- Directives
- Range of Grammatical Forms
- Illustrations To Support
- Visual Displays To Support
- Authorship Known
- Subordination
- Analogical
- Interestingness

Text Characteristics

Linguistic Unit (dominant)
- Symbol
- Letter/syllable
- Word
- Phrase/Clause
- Sentence
- Paragraph
- Multiple Paragraphs
  - Connected
  - Unconnected
- Text (whole)

Text Type/Elements
- Expository
- Narrative
- Instructions/Procedures
- Persuasion/Argumentation
- Description
- Comparison/Contrast
- Problem/Solution
- Cause/Effect
- Classification
- Drama/Dialogue
- Poetry
- Letters
- Journals/logs
- Riddles
- Reports
- Notes

Text Elements
- Introduction
- Conclusion

Task Factors

Simple, low level processes
Complex, high level processes
Lesson Frameworks (before, during, after) for reading, writing
Generating Ideas
Recognizing/Identifying/Matching
On-line Comprehension
Recall
Using Generalizing Rules
Shifting Perspectives
Creativity
Problem-solving/De-bugging
Integrating/Synthesizing
Abstracting/Summarizing
Inferencing (high level)
Predicting
Sequencing
Categorizing
Analyzing
Application/To Do/To Use
Cloze
Maze
Oral Modality
Guided Practice
Transfer (near/far)
Reproducing/Copying
Producing A Text
Functional (real purposes & contexts)
Implies/States Individual Approach
Implies/States Collaborative Approach
Uses Previous Knowledge
Uses Data Supplied
Describe
Compare/Contrast
Explain
Interpret
Make value judgment
Establish criteria
Develop artument/line of reasoning

Reader Response Form

- Non-verbal
  - None
  - Cut and Paste
  - Draw a Picture
  - Circle
- Verbal
  - Letter
  - Word
  - Phrase/clause
  - Sentence
  - Short Text/Single Paragraph
  - Long Text/Multiple Paragraphs